DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 299 461 CE 051 135

AUTHOR McLellan, James L., Ed.; Taylor, William H., Ed.
TITLE Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education Proceedings of the Annual Conference (7th, Calgary, Alberta, Canada, May 1988).
INSTITUTION Calgary Univ., Alberta. Faculty of Continuing Education.
PUB DATE May 88
NOTE 346p.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)
LANGUAGE English; French

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC14 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Adult Basic Education; *Adult Education; Adult Educators; *Adult Learning; *Adult Programs; *Adult Students; Andragogy; Computer Assisted Instruction; Continuing Education; Disabilities; Distance Education; Educational Needs; *Educational Research; Females; Higher Education; Independent Study; Lifelong Learning; Nontraditional Education; Nursing Education; Older Adults; Outcomes of Education; Postsecondary Education; Research Methodology; Rural Education; Student Characteristics; Teacher Education
IDENTIFIERS *Canada

ABSTRACT

Among the 61 papers in this volume (some in French) are the following: "Problems and Pitfalls in a Naturalistic Inquiry into the Relationship between Environmental Remembrance and Life Satisfaction among the Elderly" (Barrick); "Educating the Adult Educator" (Baskett); "Socio-Psychological Factors in Electronic Networking" (Boshier); "Study of the Impact of Education on Nursing Students' Attitudes toward Cancer and Cancer Patient Care Using a Solomon-Four Group Design" (Boyd, Law); "Team Tutoring" (Brook, Owens); "Self-Directed Learning" (Brundage); "Distance Delivery to Northern Sites by Computer Conference" (Carney, Archer); "Educational Information Brokering and Referral Services in Alberta" (Chapman et al.); "University Program for Adults with Severe Mental Disabilities" (Chapman, Tautchin); "Politics of Evaluation Studies in Adult Education" (Chaytor, Murphy, Chaytor); "Overview of Research into Adult and Continuing Education in Scotland" (Cooke); "Perceptions of Professionalism of the RN to BSN Student Pursuing a Baccalaureate Degree in Nursing" (Critzer, Groeneweg); "Issues in Distance Education from the Faculty Point of View" (Cruikshank, Gillen); "Alberta Profile of Adult Basic Skills" (Deane, Martin); "International Connections in Adult Education" (Draper): "Human Service Worker as an Adult Educator" (Farquharson); "Intergrated Community-Based Human Resource Development in the Republic of the Philippines" (Griffith); "Learning Partnerships in Adult Education" (Hey); "Factors Affecting Information Preferences of Seriously Ill Adults" (Hinds); "Effectiveness of Education and Development of Work" (Kauppi); "Using Focus Group Interviews to Assist Program Planning" (Kops, Percival); "Ensuring 'Guidance and Control'" (Law); "Training Administrators of Adult Education" (Lusthaus); "Lifelong Education" (Mathieson); "Delivering a Baccalaureate Program for Registered

Nurses by Distance Education" (McDonnell et al.); "Futures Research" (Milk); "Theoretical Perspectives of Recurrent Education" (Minnis); "Discourse of Dropout in Distance Education" (Munro); "Internationalisation of Distance Education" (Othick); "Experience of Learning through Home Study" (Passmore, Haughey); "Life Satisfaction of the Elderly in a Nursing Home" (Pattison); "Life Situation and Prior Learning of Adult Learners Studying at a Distance" (Peruniak); "Origins of the Community Development Concept" (Pyrch); "Examination of the Field of Adult Education as Conceptualized in Knowles' Theory of Andragogy Utilizing Kuhn's Model" (Radkowksi); "Heroine's Journey" (Rowe); "Historical Study of Advocacy on Behalf of Adult Education in British Columbia" (Selman); "Evaluating a Telewriter System to Enhance Audio-Teleconferencing" (Shale, Garrison); "'Need' in Adult Education" (Sork); and "Educational Equivalents" (Thomas). Twenty-three other papers are also included. (MN)

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Proceedings of the 7th Annual Conference of

CANADIAN
ASSOCIATION
FOR THE
STUDY OF
ADULT
EDUCATION

Les Actes du 7e Congrès Annuel

L'ASSOCIATION
CANADIENNE
POUR
L'ETUDE DE
L'EDUCATION
DES ADULTES

Co-Editors / Rédacteurs en Chef

James L. McLellan & William H. Taylor

Published by
Faculty of Continuing Education
The University of Calgary
May, 1988

CANADIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION
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PROBLEMS AND PITFALLS IN A NATURALISTIC INQUIRY INTO THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ENVIRONMENTAL REMEMBRANCE AND LIFE SATISFACTION AMONG THE ELDERLY

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> "All architecture is what you do to it when you look upon it... happiness, knowledge, not in another place, but this place - not for another hour, but this hour."
> - Walt Whitman -

> "...in being remembered, an experience becomes a different kind of experience. It becomes a 'memory'... of the consistent, the enduring, the reliable,...the fragile, the errant, the confabulated."
> - Edward Casey -

> "The task is to see and expereince space from the inside out."
> - the author -

In reviewing psychological literature there should be little doubt that physical environments promote emotional responses. I can recall an older women in a rural farm community sitting alone in the last pew in a small Kansas church. Even though she always attended with her husband, she sat apart from the rest of the congregation. No one ever sat with her in that pew. When I questioned her, she replied that her family had always sat in that pew, and that even though they were no longer there she felt their presence there and could imagine them still worshiping with her. The environment is always more than mere scenery. People develop long-lasting attachments to particular places early in life. The remembrance of these attachments in later life often influences life satisfaction. The structure of this remembrance needs to be considered in the design of long-term care facilities for those older Americans incapable of continued self care. Yet understanding the effects of environmental remembrance on life satisfaction is one of the current weaknesses in both psychological and gerontological literature.

Initial environmental studies concentrated on the quality of housing and the availability of health care facilities for older people. In essence, this research dealt with the physical side of what Martin Heidegger calls "dwelling." This research concentrated on spatial measurement, redundant cuing, barrier-free design, residential segregation of the elderly, and environmental competence. Few research projects were undertaken on the large number of older Americans who were capably living in urban and rural areas where they had lived most of their lives. It was only in the late seventies that the myth of the frightened, feeble elder citizen, eking out an existence marked by disengagement, locked and barricaded in a cold attic came to be questioned. As late as 1971 the belief was that personal lifespace grew to its maximum in adulthood, only to diminish with old age ultimately retreating to bodily limits (Pastalan, 1971). Only through the work of Korosec-Serfaty (1984, 1985), Rowles (1978a, 1978b, 1979, 1983) and Tuan (1975, 1982) were qualitative studies done on the meaning of place for the older individual.

It is unfortunate that there exists a confusing set of words connected to the environment: space, place, architecture, nature, home, house. Defining terms is confounded by the necessity of dealing in conceptual constructs. Architecture deals with not only the design process of buildings but the final result of such activity. It was LeCorbusier who defined architecture as art; it was beyond all the questions of construction - its primary function being to emotionally move us. Frank Lloyd Wright created a more holistic approach as a phenomenon of dwelling. For Wright, architecture is life taking a more physical form, a mirror of ideal family life at the turn of the century. Building on this concept Christopher Alexander believes architecture to be a way of understanding the patterns of human events in space. In the middle of the 1970's architecture gained an environmental meaning as a mediating factor between the individual and the macrocosm of geographic influences. This latter definition gave rise to new studies on the subjective meaning of places.

It is often impossible to identify the boundaries between self and world (Grossbart & Amedeo, 1983). Therefore, attempting to define the environment of place is difficult. Few disciplines have treated it as a major influencing factor in research, rather it has subsummed the position of a null hypothesis in research. It is only where the more important event occurs.

Place attachment, what Tuan defines as "being within the world," is expressed through reminiscence and memory. Functionally, reminiscence involves the use of perception, sensation, imagination, fantasy, and and emotion. Through long-term memory events are organized into patterns, or schema, so that at a later time they can be reclaimed without having to remember all one's personal history in a chronological sequence. The person is able to recall from long-term memory a particular event, person or place, bringing it to the conscious present. The process often highlights and clarifies, or muddies and distorts elements of that past experience making it "safe" within present reality. Thus old problems, conflicts, difficulties, unfulfilled wishes and dreams can be brought to consciousness in a safe atmosphere to be reconstructed and resolved. Psychiatrist Robert Butler has suggested that this resolving process is the attempt whereby individuals rewrite their autobiographies in more epic proportions, to make ordinary struggles heroic in magnitude. The ultimate result is to make people feel good about their past lives (Butler, 1963).

D. W. Meinig in The Interpretation of Ordinary Landscapes (1979) pointedly comments that "all human events take place" (underlining mine). This perceived environment involves the processing of energy petterns, images, symbols, and emotions. The individual constructs partial schema from sight, sound, movement, all the energy patterns of the external world. Using this partial information the person expands and extends these initial images by past experience and imagination to form a a coherent representation of the environment. Apparently for certain people, particular environments - places that are qualitatively different - have a special relationship to the individual. Rowles refers to these as "the holy places of the private universe" (1978a:176). Having such a sense involves the experience of Heidegger's dwelling, developing roots, of being able to sum up a part of life within the remembrance of a particular geographic space. In his discussion of the memories associated with the concept of home, Tuan comments that such an idea "makes the character of the human world vividly present to the senses and the mind" (1982: 52). Memory is the basis of a person's identity.

The concept of the interrelationship between the remembrance of special places and life satisfaction is based upon the thesis that just as the vision of the future is affected by the perceived past, so the vision of the past is affected by the perceived future. What faces the researcher is part of the dilemma. How does one investigate all the various levels of an older person's attachment to place? Earlier studies emphasized environmental theough the observation of overt, objective behavior. Such positivist approaches left unanswered questions of of vicarious participation in geographical settings, emotional identification with particular places, the role of time in autobiographical reminiscence, and the importance of fantasy and imagination in reworking memory. Therefore the immediate problem for the researcher rests with the delineation of the boundaries of the issue to be investigated. The present investigation suggests four such issues: the meanings that people bestow upon particular places, the ways in which time and imagination recreate autobiograhpical memories of place, the construction of a useful typology for the study of geographical memory, and how memories of past places affect feelings of life satisfaction. Rowles defines this dimension as "geographical lifespace" taking his cue from the work of Lewin (1978a:22). The dimension recognizes that location is interrelated to the social and psychological dimensions of existence.

Since this research project primarilly deals with the meanings that people attach to particular environments, careful selection of a research methodology was was a major task. Meanings, part of an individual's world view, and part of their natural and assumed attitude, are highly individualized. As such, meanings are highly inappropriate for investigation by current quantitative methodologies. In addition, Gubrium and Lynott believe life satisfaction to be a subjective process involving the comparative extension of self over time (1983). Their position renders the use of elaborate survey techniques and quantitatively scored questionnaires inappropriate. Writing of his own experience in the field, Rowles criticizes the use of elaborate, lengthy, and preconceived instruments to study environmental meaning, "In traditional survey research, most exchanges are structured to become little more than an exercise for the respondent in guessing a priori preconceptions of the researcher. The phrasing of questions and limitations of response categories provide the necessary guidance in making appropriate assessments as the researcher has decided what the respondent thinks before he enters the field" (1978b:184).

After due consideration of the literature, plus some fear and trembling over the bent of many doctoral committees toward pure statistical methodologies, I elected to place the technique of the qualitative field interview method into the Lincoln and Guba paradigm of naturalistic inquiry. Their paradigm would provide the structural flow for the basic philosophic approach of an "almost phenomenological" study. The qualitative interview represents an initial structured approach, combining it to an openness to what next ensues. Such an interviewing technique needs to establish the following characteristics to be true to its philosophy:

1) It must center on the participant's world as s/he understands it. As such the interview must consider three factors - the theme, the people involved, and the context. From the start the interviewer is part of the existential situation. Interpersonal barriers will have to be overcome; items such as age, ethnicity, and language will have to give way to a commonality. The common factors are the participant's humanity and the research theme. Even then participant's may not wish to reveal their life-world in as much detail as the researcher might wish.
2) Building meaning and relationships takes time. People need to feel they have control over the length of the interview time, and they need to be encouraged to express themselves in their own way. Embedded themes may only surface in very fleeting parts of a more lengthy conversation. For example, one participant in this study spent almost three hours talking about the recent death of a parent and the feelings of guilt that remained. It was only later that I realized the research theme was really part of the conversation, disguised in a different format. By the time this study will have finished I will have spent about one month in on-site interviewing.
3) It must be descriptive. In the use of qualitative inquiry, neither the analysis of themes nor the collection of data proceeds in an orderly manner. Sometimes it seemed to me to be bordering on chaotic. Concepts and themes can emerge throughout the entire process. The approach demands a commitment on the part of the interviewer to represent the participants in their own words and in their own surroundings. Such a process requires reporting in a clear, descriptive, narrative style the depth and detail of words and setting. The resulting mass of field material has come to be known as "thick description." Since there was no easy guide as to what was or was not important there were times when I felt like a pack rat saving every scrap of conversation, every observation. That saving sense has remained

through the whole process.

4) Eventually, the number of participants will be few. My final group at each site was a product of evolution. Not everyone contacted was able or willing to continue in-depth interviews. Of the approximately thirty potential contacts across the four sites, only nine emerged as major contributors. I believe the final group were self-selecting. It is not that the others did not contribute, they played a major role in narrowing themes, giving closure and establishing saturation. Two of the study participants died between the intitial and any follow-up study.
5) The researcher must recognize the implications of the passage of time and change. Neither participant nor interviewer can replicate the content of earlier statements, as new insight and increased consciousness has intervened with the passage of time. We have all grown.
6) Qualitative interviewing is by nature interpersonal, and as such participants (researcher and interviewee) influence each other. It is out of this mutuality of respect that the data grows. For the individual strictly trained in quantitative measurement it is difficult to recognize this interaction as the key point of the methodology and not as a source of error.

Today I am doing follow-up interviews, playing and replaying tapes, using up packs of 3x5 cards, listening for emergent themes, and still enjoying the whole process. I will miss the friends made and the concerns shared when the process is completed.

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EDUCATING THE ADULT EDUCATOR: RESULTS OF A SURVEY OF NEEDS FOR CASE STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

The case study method has a revered place in management education. One of the reasons for its success in management is that there has grown up a culture, technology and a sufficient mass of relevant cases from which instructors can choose to suit their instructional purposes.

For the past several years, the Canadian Association of University Continuing Education (CAUCE) has sponsored Annual Management Programs in which the case study method played a prominent place as an instructional approach. Although the method was held in high esteem, the organizers were confronted with a a paucity of useable written cases, especially cases which recognized the Canadian context.

In an attempt to understand more about the case study method as a tool for educating adult educators,and with a view to possibly developing better case materials, the author undertook a survey of the need for case studies to educate adult and continuing educators in Canada. Financial support was provided by the Executive of CAUCE. The objectives of the study were to determine: (1) the extent of the interest in/need for case studies in teaching adult and continuing educators; (2) the kind and nature of case studies which would be most useful; (3) individuals who now have, or would be willing to prepare, case materials for possible publication.

SAMPLE

The actual universe of "educators of adult educators" in Canada is difficult to determine because there is no central registry of this group. The membership of the Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education (CASAE) and the Canadian Association of University Continuing Education (CAUCE) were chosen as the most likely target audiences.

Batch questionnaires were sent to the dean or director of each of the 51 departments of extension/continuing education. In addition, 247 questionnaires were sent directly to the 1984-85 membership list of CASAE. In total 41 valid questionnaires were completed and returned. Twenty respondents held full, associate or assistant professorial rank. Other positions cited were director (7), program coordinator (4), chair (2), dean (2), associate director/dean (3), instructor (2) and adjunct professor (1).

Respondents came from 19 separate universities. Twenty of the 41 listed their unit as extension or continuing education, 19 indicated a teaching department, and two were listed as "other". Of the 12 universities which are known to instruct adult/continuing education in degree programs in Canada, only 8 were represented.

By comparing the numbers of responses received from teaching units in Canada against the number of degree course educators listed by Keane (1984), or known by the researcher, it is estimated that only 22% of the possible universe of educators of adult educators in degree programs was heard from. Almost all of the university continuing education or extension units in Canada which were known to the researcher to have certificate or non-credit programs in adult and continuing education were heard from.

In summary, it is estimated that from one-third to one-half of university based educators of adult educators in Canada was reached.

Of the 41 respondents, 21 of 51.2% taught credit only, 5 or 12.2% taught non-credit only, and 11 or 26.8% taught both credit and non-credit, with 4 or 9.8% instructing in neither.

METHODOLOGY

Because this study was primarily descriptive in nature, the data sought was clear and non-personal, and there was sufficient time, a mail-out survey was used.

Several trial instruments were developed and refined. Because of the difficulty in conveying concepts related to case studies in a simple manner, earlier drafts were rejected and greater effort was placed on simplifying the instrument. Two pre-tests were administered, and adjustments made accordingly.

FINDINGS

Most of the respondents (37 or 90%) were familiar with the case study method, although only slightly over one-half, indicated that they had used, or now use, case studies for instruction. Because some of the questions required experience in the case study method, only 23 respondents completed some sections.

There was a wide range of case topics which respondents have used, or are now using, with very little overlap. Implementation/Program Management was most often mentioned (8 of 23 responses).

1. Potential Demand

A large demand for additional case studies was not evident. Only 17 or 40.5% of the 41 respondents indicated that they did need more cases to assist them in educating adult/continuing educators.

When asked for what purposes they would use additional cases, provision of opportunities for problem-solving, provision of opportunities for critical analysis, and enhancement of student involvement in their own learning were each selected as a high choice (79% or higher) by the 19 who responded to this question. Other purposes chosen most often were: To illustrate technique application (73.7%); to demonstrate complexity of subject matter (63.2%); and to demonstrate theories (63.2%).

2. Participant Audience

For whom are cases in adult and continuing education presently being used? Both instructors of adults and undergraduates were the target audience for 63% of the respondents. Trainers in organizations and graduates rated over one half (58% and 53%), while students in non-credit courses and programmers were each selected by approximately two-fifths of the educators of adult educators. The fact that there are 6 distinct potential end users of cases in adult and continuing educations helps one to understand that each audience may require somewhat different approaches, and cases would need to be of varying sophistication and complexity.

3. Case Topics

In order to ascertain the subject areas of cases which would be most useful to the educators of adult educators, respondents were asked to identify and then rank-order case-topics. The diversity of responses was overwhelming. Forty-one separate case topics were mentioned, ranging from management of instruction to marketing.

Twenty of the 41 respondents completed the case topic section of the questionnaire. Topics ranked 3rd or higher by 4 or more of the 20 were program planning and design (5) and needs identification (4). These data are not particularly useful for decision-making. However, as a development tool, the extensive range of topics can be used to devise closed-option questions in future studies of the case method in educating adult educators.

4.Case Complexity

Cases can range from simple to difficult on at least 3 dimensions: complexity of problem or concept; complexity of presentation of material; and complexity of analytic problem-solving. (Leenders and Erskine, 1978).

Table 1. portrays the results of the responses to the case complexity questions. It is apparent that a medium level of difficulty is preferred, although a medium to difficult level of analytic problem-solving would be preferred compared to the other two dimensions of complexity. The level of difficulty selected would in most cases depend upon the nature of the end-user.

Level of Difficulty Preferred	Dimensions of Complexity					
	Concepts or Problems		Presentation of Material		Analytic Problem-Solving	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Simple	7	30.4	5	20.0	3	12.0
Medium	15	65.2	17	68.0	14	56.0
Difficult	1	4.4	3	12.0	8	32.0
Cannot Answer	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total Responses	23	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0

TABLE 1 CASE COMPLEXITY CHOSEN BY 20 EDUCATORS OF ADULT EDUCATORS (Some chose more than one level of difficulty for each dimension of complexity.)

5. Case Length

Most respondents (82% of the 17 responding) wanted case lengths of 6 pages or less, and two-thirds indicated that they would be willing to devote no more than two hours of class time to each case. Five hours was the maximum time and 20 pages the maximum length selected.

6. Marketing Information

In preparing the questionnaire, specific marketing questions, such as costs thresholds and potential future use were included. Of the 23 who were eligible to respond to questions on costs only 11 did so. Given that the question asked for the educators of adult educators' perception of someone else's reaction to costs, response validity must be questioned. The responses received indicated that a perceived "reasonable cost" per case would be between $1.00 and $5.00.

Respondents were also asked "If case studies were published which met the specifications you have outlined ... (length, costs, level of complexity, audience, etc) ... would you use them to educate adult educators?" All 17 of those who responded to this question answered "Yes".

Finally, respondents were asked to indicate their willingness to prepare new cases for publication. Seventeen of the 41 indicated in the positive and a list of those individuals has been kept for future follow-up.

DISCUSSION

Because no master roster of educators of adult educators exists in Canada, it is very difficult to determine the size of this group. It was disappointing to the researcher that only 41 responses were received. Some possible explanations are that the universe is very small, or that if it is large most do not use the method and therefore were not willing to respond. A further possibility is that the target audience, though large, was not adequately reached.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the use of/need for/interest in case studies as an instructional tool for the education of adult educators in Canada. A conservative estimate would be that one-third to one half of university-based educators of adult educators were reached, and that the total numbers would be in the vicinity of 100 educators of adult educators in Canada. Based on the survey results, only half or about 50 are now, or are planning to use, the case method. Assuming that each instructor would reach 15 enrollments per year, one might project a demand in the vicinity of 750 cases per year. Although in Canadian terms, a run of 750 textbooks is regarded as acceptable, when one considers the low price threshold which instructors believe will be tolerated by students and the diversity of cases which would be necessary to meet the demand, any possible economy of scale gained would be counteracted. The combinations of subject, level, length, and complexity required would reduce the demand for any one case considerably.

One could conclude that, as a commercial venture, the development of cases to meet such a small market in Canada would not be viable. There are, however, a number of alternate responses which could be considered.

First, in the process of this investigation, a number of cases already being used have been identified. These could be gathered centrally, and made available to educators as they needed them. At least, a list of cases, indicating types, length, intended audience, levels of difficulty and source could be circulated. Of course, the issues of copyright would need to be dealt with.

A second direction could be to extend the survey. A basic questionnaire has been developed and tested. In this study, the francophone population of educators of adult educators is under-represented. Similarly, one might try to reach "trainers of trainers" and other non-university based populations who have an interest in adult and continuing education. Other English-speaking populations such in the US, the UK, India, New Zealand and Australia could be considered as a target, making commercial publication of the most popular cases a possibility. Special attention would have to be given to cultural differences in such circumstances.

Finally, much more could be done to encourage the publication of cases by educators and practitioners. Seventeen individuals interested in publishing cases have been identified in this study. CJUCE or CJSAE could encourage submission of such cases for publication, perhaps in theme issues.

CONCLUSIONS

This report provides data which may be useful in examining how the case method can be developed as a tool for educating adult/continuing educators in Canada. As such, it represents only a beginning. It becomes apparent that a more extensive study would be needed to confirm/disconfirm the existence of a market substantial enough to merit commercial publications of cases.

Other, more immediate avenues exist which can help to improve the use of the case study method for the education of adult educators in Canada and elsewhere, and some of these are set down in this report.

Indirectly, this study raises the larger question, that is, "Is there a need in Canada to give leadership to the improvement of the education of adult educators?" If so, who or what group should provide such leadership and how?

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QUESTIONS RELIEES A L'AUTODIDAXIE

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La recherche actuelle indique que l'autodidaxie est en voie d'obtenir, dans le domaine de l'éducation des adultes, un certain statut (Oddi, 1987; Brookfield, 1985,1986; Landry, 1986; Danis & Tremblay, 1987; Tremblay, 1986; Brockett, 1985; Theil, 1984; Caffarella & Caffarella, 1983; Pineau, 1983; Chené, 1982; Kasworm, 1982).

Le sens (la notion) de cette forme d'apprentissage est relativement bien établi et un concensus se dégage des recherches dans ce domaine. Dans une récente recherche sur l'apprentissage en situation d'autodidaxie, Tremblay (1986) circonscrit le concept d'autonomie dans l'apprentissage à la lumière des recherches qui ont abordé cette réalité. Cela a permis à cette auteure de ressaisir le concept d'autonomie dans l'apprentissage et d'en dégager une définition dont la pertinence est évidente:

> " Une série d'épisodes interreliés durant lesquels la principale motivation de l'individu est d'acquérir des connaissances ou des habiletés ou de changer des attitudes. Ceci exige un effort délibéré et constant afin de satisfaire les besoins qu'il a lui-même identifiés et le but qu'il poursuit. Pour cela, il assume l'entière responsabilité du choix des contenus, des ressources et de la gestion de son projet ou peu s'en faut. Il y parvient hors des institutions éducatives ou sans agent éducatif"(p.27).

Cependant, un certain nombre de questions sont encore à l'étude et pour éviter que l'autodidaxie ne prenne des directions qui pour - raient éventuellement en réduire la dynamique et la richesse, il convient de ressaisir certaines de ces questions et de les confronter énergiquement avec la réalité.

Ces quelques questions émergent souvent sous forme de problèmes ou de difficultés reliés à l'autodidaxie. En effet, parce que ce phénomène tend actuellement à se tailler une place intéressante et qu'il peut éventuellement répondre aux besoins d'un grand nombre d'apprenants adultes, il est possible que des dimensions importantes de l'autodidaxie demeurent non résolues ou recoivent une diversité de réponses. A ce moment, nous craignons que l'autodidaxie, dans le sens défini par la recherche, se dilue, se disperse et conséquemment s'appauvrisse.

Le but de cette présentation est de soulever des questions, de tenter d'en circonscrire la complexité et de suggérer des pistes de recherche.Ces quelques questions ne sont certes pas exhaustives, mais nous croyons qu'elles sont probablement à l'heure actuelle, celles qui, compte tenu de l'état de la recherche en ce domaine, demandent et exigent une attention immédiate.

1) La dimension sociale de l'autodidaxie

L'autodidaxie, ou si l'on préfère, cette approche du savoir, c'est-à-dire cette méthode par laquelle on s'implique dans un processus de changement dans quelque domaine que ce soit, se perd dans la nuit des temps. C'est en effet depuis toujours que des apprenants, dans le but de conquérir, d'être plus, de savoir davantage, d'améliorer une performance ou une technique, se sont lancés dans un processus qui leur a permis de grandir, de se développer et d'acquérir dans certains cas une expertise que la société a accepté de reconnaitre (Landry,1986; Tremblay,1986).

Nous sommes maintenant en route vers une ère hautement informatisée et dans laquelle la communication émergera de partout. Il est même permis de croire que dans une société ou la technologie ne connaitra plus de frontières, des apprenants, quel que soit leur âge, leur statut ou leur éducation, oseront de plus en plus composer avec leur propre réalité en mettant à profit les nombreux moyens qui seront alors à leur disposition. Dans le champ de l'éducation des adultes en particulier, il est permis de croire que l'autodidaxie puisse se révéler un moyen très approprié en vue de permettre à plus d'adultes soit de se perfectionner, soit de changer d'orientation, soit d'élever leur statut, soit d'obtenir un diplôme ou degré universitaire.

La question devient alors la suivante: jusqu'où la société est-elle prête à aller pour reconnaitre, sanctionner et approuver et le cheminement et le produit fini de l'autodidaxie (Brockett,1985) ? Il ne s'agit pas ici de se contenter d'une approbation informelle, toute impersonnelle, voire même folklorique de l'autodidaxie. Il s'agit plutôt d'une reconnaissance officielle, institutionnelle, appuyée par un diplôme, un degré, un certificat, etc, bref, d'une reconnaissance formelle permettant à son détenteur soit de changer de niveau professionnel, soit d'acquérir un nouveau statut, soit d'être reconnu par la communauté comme ayant acquis les compétences et l'expertise nécessaires pour exercer telle ou telle fonction ou profession.

A ce titre, d'importantes avenues commencent à être proposées. Il s'agit de se référer ici à l'expérience tentée au Teachers College, Columbia University, et rapportée par Bauer (1985). Cette auteure retrace le cheminement d'étudiants au doctorat dans le cadre du programme AEGIS (Adult Education Guided Independant Study). Les résultats de cette démarche nous apparaissent fort significatifs et c'est dans cette voie que beaucoup d'autres institutions auraient avantage à regarder.

2) L'animateur en autodidaxie

Jusqu'à maintenant, la recherche s'est davantage préoccupée des dimensions reliées à l'autodidaxie elle-même ou encore à celui qui s'engage dans un tel processus. La recherche demeure encore vague et diffuse sur celui qui pourrait être perçu comme l'animateur, le conseiller, le mentor, le facilitateur. Knowles (1975,p.44-58) dans Self-Directed Learning: a guide for learners and teachers , tente de tailler une place pour le facilitateur dans le cadre d'une expérience autodidactique avec des étudiants. Mais, comme il le mentionne, ceci se produit à l'intérieur d'un "graduate course "(p.44). Telle que relatée, cette expérience apparait beaucoup plus conforme aux structures institutionnelles traditionnelles qu'aux nouveaux canons de l'autodidaxie. Plus récemment, Knowles (1980) place beaucoup d'emphase sur le "learning contract ". Encore ici, cette orientation ne s'éloigne pas de façon significative des voies traditionnelles de la relation professeur-étudiant. Kasworm (1982) et Caffarella & Caffarella (1983) ont également fait des recherches en ce sens et ont respectivement montré que des étudiants avaient majoritairement évalué le cours de façon favorable et qu'une amélioration de certaines dimensions de l'autodidaxie avait été remarquée.

Quoi qu'il en soit, et compte tenu des expériences passées ou en cours, il n'en demeure pas moins que, comme le mentionne Brookfield (1986, p.68) " faculty are often untrained in this mode of education ". Or, étant donné que les institutions dispensatrices du savoir sont celles qui pourraient davantage fournir des facilitateurs à l'autodidaxie, il est difficile de concevoir une ouverture significative en - vers cette dernière à moins qu'une préparation adéquate soit offerte au personnel actuellement en place. Il n'est pas exagéré de croire qu'actuellement la recherche se concentre presqu'exclusivement sur le processus de l'autodidaxie et sur celui qui veut s'y aventurer. Qu'est-ce qui est actuellement fait, dit ou élaboré à l'intention de l'animateur ou du facilitateur de l'autodidaxie? Quel sera son rôle, son implication, sa démarche? Comment pourra t-il accompagner l'apprenant s'il n'a pas été lui-même introduit, d'une façon ou d'une autre, aux possibilités qu'offre maintenant l'autodidaxie? L'institution tolèrera t-elle ou approuvera t-elle des expériences conduites par des " amateurs " ? Car, si l'excellence doit faire partie de l'autodidaxie, il est difficile de concevoir, d'accepter et de promouvoir le fait qu'un animateur devienne en définitive un apprenant guidant un autre apprenant. A ce titre, Brockett (1985) mentionne qu'il n'y a pas encore de recherches qui montrent le type de relations qui doivent exister entre le facilitateur et l'apprenant en processus d'autodidaxie. La question de la compétence du facilitateur est maintenant ouverte et exigera bientôt des réponses. Ces réponses devront davantage tenir compte du statut que nous aimerions voir prendre l'autodidaxie. S'il est vrai que cette voie offre des perspectives intéressantes, il faudra que les éventuels animateurs de l'autodidaxie puissent composer efficacement avec un ensemble de variables définies par la recherche dans ce domaine. En ce sens, l'institution aurait grandement avantage à mettre sur pied, à l'intention d'une partie de son personnel, des cours de didactique de l'autodidaxie. A ce moment, des spécialistes seraient disponibles pour accompagner les éventuels intéressés à l'autodidaxie.

3) les exigences personnelles de l'autodidaxie

Ce qui est actuellement présenté dans la recherche sur l'autodidaxie ne manque ni d'intérêt ni de perspectives. Cependant, la recherche n'a pas encore suffisamment établi ce dont l'apprenant a besoin pour entreprendre par lui-même un projet d'apprentissage. Il s'agit ici de considérer certaines exigences personnelles de l'aùtodidaxie.

Il va sans dire que ceci se réfère davantage aux apprenants qui, dans un domaine plus académique que technique, désirent obtenir une expertise, une notoriété voire même un statut académique. Il ne s'agit pas ici d'insinuer que dans le passé, les éventuels autodidactes se soient lancés dans une aventure sans s'être assurés de la présence en eux de certaines caractéristiques essentielles. Il n'est cependant pas erroné de croire que l'autodidaxie, dans bien des cas, s'est avérée une avenue plus frustrante que significative précisément parce que certains apprenants n'ont pas su évaluer avec précision soit leurs acquis, soit leur potentiel ou soit les difficultés que représentait une démarche autodidactique.

Si l'on reprend la définition de l'autodidaxie (Tremblay, 1986,p.27), il y a une chose qui devient vite évidente à savoir la rigueur avec laquelle cette réalité doit être traitée. Et quand on introduit la rigueur d'une démarche scientifique, on doit immédiatement introduire un ensemble d'exigences qui respecteront cette rigueur. Or, c'est ainsi que se justifie l'existence d'un ensemble d'exigences, de qualités, de caractéristiques personnelles qui permettront à l'apprenant de planifier, de conduire et d'évaluer son projet d'apprentissage. Dans une perspective autodidactique, un renversement doit s'opérer. Ainsi, Cunningham (1982) pose une question dont l'importance est majeure pour l'apprenant : " to what extent can learners be in charge of goal setting, methodological choices, and evaluation when traditional institutions maintain ultimate control of these functions " (p.82) ? Le renversement nous apparait suffisamment clair. L'apprenant doit s'approprier des fonctions qui jusqu'à maintenant ne lui appartenaient pas ou du moins sur lesquelles son emprise n'était que très minime. Il serait alors illusoire de vouloir opérer ce renversement à moins de s'assurer d'une excellente connaissance de soi, d'une saisie du degré de son autonomie personnelle face à l'apprentissage, de sa capacité de vivre l'incertitude, de ses possibilités d'auto-évaluation.

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PROFIL DES APPRENANT(E)S ADULTES EN TELECONFERENCE

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INTRODUCTION

Deux objectifs principaux ont guidé les travaux de la recherche: décrire les caractéristiques principales des apprenant(e)s adultes inscrit(e)s à des cours par téléconférence et identifier les comportements d'aide qu'ils (elles) jugent les plus importants envers eux-mêmes et envers les autres pour faciliter leur apprentissage. Une classification et un regroupement des énoncés formulés par les répondant(e)s ont permis d'identifier les comportements importants selon les adultes eux-mêmes et de distinguer ces comportements selon trois classes d'importance différente.

PROBLEMATIQUE

En général, les apprenant(e)s à distance sont presque tous (toutes) des adultes. En téléconférence, il (elles) forment des groupes hétérogènes, comparativement aux adultes qui poursuivent leurs études dans un réseau traditionnel. Il est donc difficile de décrire l'apprenant(e) à distance typique. Les études socio-économiques menées jusqu'à présent, notamment celles de l'Unesco (1977), identifient l'apprenant(e) adulte à distance comme une personne qui travaille à temps plein, âgée de 20 à 40 ans, avec une grande motivation pour les études entreprises, et dont le statut socio-économique est au-dessous de la moyenne. Ces apprenant(e)s étudient volontairement, à temps partiel, et ils (elles) habitent en banlieue des centres urbains.

Concernant leurs raisons d'inscription à des cours à distance, Holmberg (1981) montre que ces apprenant(e)s désirent obtenir des attestations d'études ou des diplômes, tout en remettant à jour leurs connaissances professionnelles. De même, la proportion d'apprenant(e)s désirant améliorer leurs habiletés professionnelles est importante en formation à distance. De plus, la plupart des apprenant(e)s ont une famille, ce qui leur laisse peu de temps pour les études.

Watters (1985) avait identifié les fonctions et les tâches du groupe d'apprenant(e)s. Cependant les comportements d'aide des apprenant(e)s qui permettent de réaliser les tâches et, par conséquent, les fonctions du groupe demeuraient encore inconnues. La présente recherche dresse maintenant la liste des comportements d'aide les plus importants.

Aspects méthodologiques

La recherche a été menée auprès de 304 apprenant(e)s adultes inscrit(e)s (population totale) en formation universitaire à distance, par le mode de la téléconférence, à l'université de Moncton. Un questionnaire, dont la première partie portait sur les caractéristiques des apprenant(e)s et la seconde[1] sur les comportements d'aide ainsi que leur importance pour les répondant(e)s, à été envoyé à toutes ces personnes et trois rappels ont été faits auprès des retardataires.

Au total, 182 réponses (59,9% de la population) ont été reçues. Tous les énoncés de comportements ont été classifiés et regroupés selon le cadre de référence issu d'une recension de 151 écrits. Le cadre de référence, la classification ainsi que le regroupement des énoncés et des comportements ont été vérifiés par trois juges.

Caractéristiques des apprenant(e)s

Six variables descriptives, parmi celles qui sont le plus souvent analysées dans ce type de recherche, ont été utilisées pour obtenir les caractéristiques des apprenant(e)s: âge, sexe, études antérieures, rythme d'études, motifs d'inscription aux études et attitude envers la coopération et la compétition.

La catégorie d'âge la plus représentée dans le groupe examiné est celle des 25 ans et moins (37,4%), ce qui représente plus du tiers des répondant(e)s. Le nombre d'adultes diminu au fur et à mesure que progresse leur âge. Ce groupe de répondant(e)s est aussi composé majoritairment de femmes (64,8%) comme le montre le tableau 1.

En ce qui a trait aux études antérieures, la recherche a démontré que 67% des répondant(e)s avaient un diplôme collégial ou universitaire avant leur inscription à des cours de baccalauréat. Peu d'apprenant(e)s (3,4%) n'ont pas déjà complété leurs études secondaires ou collégiales.

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[1] La seconde partie du questionnaire était composée de questions ouvertes.

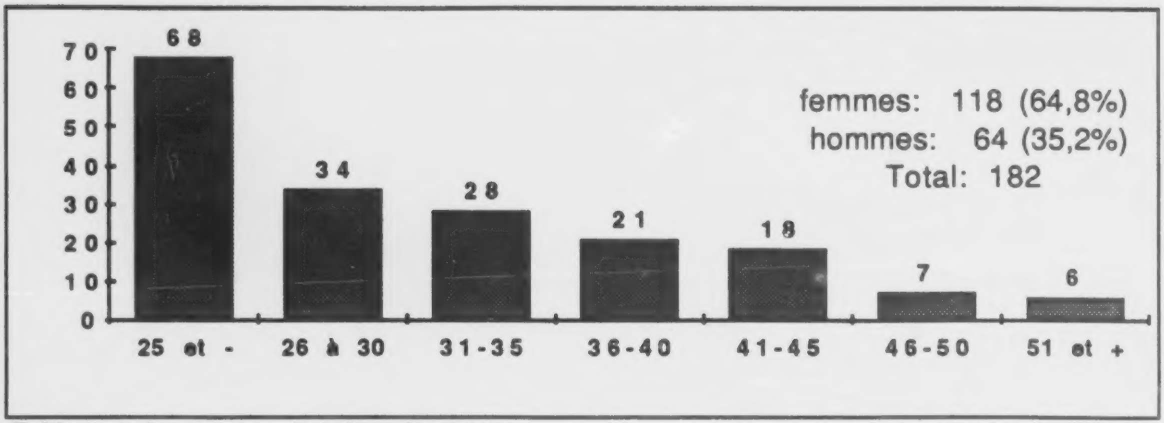

Tableau 1 Age et sexe des répondant(e)s

Les étudiant(e)s à temps partiel représentent 52,2% des répondant(e)s. Plus du tiers (39,9%) des répondant(e)s n'ont pas de travail rémunéré, alors que 59,3% ont un travail rémunéré tout en poursuivant leurs études. Des 182 répondant(e)s, près de la moitié (47,2%) ont un travail rémunéré tout en poursuivant leurs études.

Parmi un choix de 16 motifs d'inscription aux études, quatre motifs se partagent le choix exprimé par près des trois quarts des répondant(e)s: *Je désire avancer dans ma carrière* (24,3%), *je désire augmenter mes connaissances* (18,7%), *je suis intéressé(e) par le sujet du cours* (17,7%) et *je désire être plus compétent(e) dans mon travail* (13,8%). Les motifs liés à l'aspect cognitif ont été invoqués par 58,7% des répondant(e)s et plus du tiers (38,1%) des personnes ont invoqué des motifs liés au travail comme motifs d'inscription à leurs études.

Les attitudes envers la coopération et la compétition sont très démarquées. Plus des trois quarts (77,5%) des répondant(e)s aiment travailler en groupe dans leurs études. La compétition comme telle, n'a été identifiée que par 2,7% des personnes.

Comportements d'aide

Des comportements d'aide (54 comportements) en formation à distance et par téléconférence ont été relevés d'une recension des écrits et classifiés selon deux grandes dimensions: dimension socio-émotive (21 comportements) et dimension de la tâche (33 comportements) du Tableau de Bales. De plus, ces comportements d'aide ont été classifiés dans l'une des trois catégories[2] de comportements propres à chacune des deux dimensions.

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[2] Dimension socio-émotive: catégories de cohésion, climat et décision.

L'étude des résultats a permis de classifier et de regrouper selon leur sens, les 853 énoncés exprimés par les répondant(e)s. Elle a aussi permis d'identifier 85 comportements d'aide et parmi ces comportements, 26 apparaissent plus importants que les autres. Trois comportements sont exceptionnellement importants: écouter les autres lorsqu'ils (elles) parlent, discuter des idées avec les autres et porter attention aux autres.

Les sept autres comportements d'aide regroupés dans une deuxième classe d'importance sont, par ordre: participer sérieusement et activement aux cours, citer des exemples pour clarifier le sens des idées, poser des questions à propos du sujet, faire des activités individuelles spécifiques, donner son opinion, créer et maintenir un bon climat de travail et porter attention à ce qui est dit. Dans une troisième classe, dix autres comportements d'aide complétaient cette liste de comportements d'aide importants.

Les résultats démontrent aussi que pour les répondant(e)s, les comportements d'aide dans la tâche sont plus importants que les comportements socio-émotifs, d'après le nombre d'énoncés exprimés (61%) et d'après la pondération attribuée (65,1%). La catégorie des comportements d'aide de communication dans la tâche est la catégorie la plus importante de toutes, selon le nombre d'énoncés (39,5%) et selon la pondération (42,4%).

Par ordre d'importance, les autres comportements se distribuent selon les catégories suivantes: contrôle dans la tâche (17,8%), cohésion (14,8%), climat (12,4%), décision (7,8%), toutes trois de la dimension socio-émotive, suivie de l'évaluation dans la dimension de la tâche avec 4,8%.

Conclusion

Cette recherche a d'abord permis de connaître plus précisément le profil du groupe d'étudiant(e)s en formation à distance inscrit(e)s à des cours universitaires dans les Maritimes. Ce groupe était en majorité composé de femmes (64,8%) et près des trois quarts (71,5%) des répondant(e)s avaient moins de trente-six ans. Le diplôme collégial ou son équivalent était déjà acquis pour plus des deux tiers (67%) des personnes avant leur inscription à des cours par téléconférence. Près de la moitié (52,2%) d'entre elles étudiaient à temps partiel et avaient un travail rémunéré (59,3%). Les motifs d'inscription aux études liés à l'aspect cognitif, ont été invoqués par 58,7% et 77,5% des répondant(e)s ont une préférence pour les études en groupe. L'âge est la seule caractéristique qui diffère des résultats obtenus lors de recherches antérieures.

Dimension de la tâche : catégories de communication, contrôle et évaluation.

Cette recherche a aussi permis d'identifier et de classifier, selon leur nombre et leur importance, les comportements d'aide socio-émotifs et les comportements d'aide dans la tâche des apprenant(e)s en tant que membres d'un groupe en téléconférence. En tout, 86 comportements d'aide ont été identifiés, soit à l'occasion de la recension des écrits (54 comportements) ou soit par la compilation des réponses (32 comportements) des répondant(e)s des Maritimes. Ces résultats permettent de mieux comprendre les perceptions des apprenant(e)s sur les comportements qui facilitent leur apprentissage dans ce mode de formation à distance qu'est la téléconférence.

A partir des résultats obtenus, il serait maintenant possible de développer des situations d'apprentissage propres à ce mode de formation, par l'utilisation plus adéquate du groupe. Cette recherche fait ressortir l'importance que les apprenant(e)s accordent à la dimension de la tâche lorsqu'ils (elles) interagissent dans des petits groupes en téléconférence.

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SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN ELECTRONIC NETWORKING

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Faure (1972) claimed that if principles of lifelong education were implemented the result would be the creation of a "learning society where education would occur in a broad array of "educational" and "non-educational" settings. Participants would be linked with a diverse array of resources and learners. Learners rather than educators would "control" the teaching-learning transaction. Distinctions between work, education and leisure would diminish as would those between "learners" and teachers". This grand vision contained echoes of McLuhan's notion of the "global village" but it is not easy to implement because changes cannot be made piecemeal. Lifelong education requires a total restructuring of education systems and often requires changes that upset power relationships, and jeapordizes the position of elites. It is often resisted by those unwilling to relinquish power. Despite this, pilot projects and innovations congruent with one or more parts of lifelong education education "theory" were implemented after 1972.

An outstanding recent example concerns electronic networking which, although far from the grassroots that motivated much of Faure's work, involves processes congruent with assumptions associated with lifelong education. In recent years bridges between local networks have enabled people in different countries, cultures and time zones to communicate in an inexpensive and unencumbered way. E (for electronic) mail is used for moderated conferences and freewheeling unmoderated discussion about topics such as solar power, silicon chips, sausages, sailing and sex.

Although difficult issues related to power and control are emerging, E-mail has immense implications for adult education conducted in the context of lifelong education. Its utility seems to be enhanced by the interpersonal warmth that develops between participants in education conducted by E-mail. There is something alluring about E-mail and educators can utilize what we have labelled the "electronic pen pal" syndrome. Thus far, discussion about E-mail has largely focussed on technical matters. The human actors in this contemporary drama have largely been ignored but are at the centre of any attempt to use E-mail for adult education.

The purposes of this paper are to:

1. Analyse recent uses of E-mail for the purposes of adult education.
2. Discuss the significance of the "affect" generated by two contrasting computer-based conferences.

By 1987 more than a quarter of the 10 million personal computers in the U.S.A. were connected to various databases and networks and today many people receive counselling via the "green screen", others have patched-up or abandoned their marrage as a result of E-mail, "long distance" U.B.C. graduate students have received detailed (and some say, superior) supervision via modem and administrators like it because people usually answer their E-mail quickly. In France, more than two million Mintel terminals deliver a bewildering variety of services more than half of them concerned with sex. E-mail seems to foster the the development of intimate relationships and the speed with which information can be exchanged is a significant improvement on snailmail via the Post Office.

Brand (1987) claimed that a personal computer without a telephone line attached is a "poor lonely thing". Computers attached to telephones evaporate the tyranny of place and, to a considerable degree, time. A U.B.C. colleague has a joint appointment with Linkoping University, supervises research there and, most of the time, colleagues here (and there) do not know if he is in Sweden or Canada since his messages from either place look the same. "Administratively", he, like others, is still here when he travels.

Reduced Cues

In New Zealand, the author knew a blind male student who had enviable relationships with a coterie of women. His feelings about them were based on sound, smell and touch. He did not make judgements based on visual cues so conventional beliefs concerning "beauty" meant little. The restricted array of perceptual cues available seemed to facilitate the development of empathy, and, in some respects, his situation can be compared to the person sending and receiving E-mail. Electronic pen-pals, conference participants or billboard users are represented by words on a screen and it is impossible to make judgements based on sight, sound or smell, except where someone confesses to halitosis.

Face-to-face meetings with electronic correspondents can be shocking, just as they are with conventional pen-pals, particularly when it turns out that the corrrespondent you "know" is unlike what you had imagined. This restriction of cues also opens possibilities for deception. This was was shown by the Atlantic Monthly analysis of a male who posed as a woman psychiatrist who "counselled" bereft women. There is also the case of the U.B.C. adult education doctoral student who posed as a 65 year-old handicapped native woman during a 1988 Syracuse University ADEDNET discussion on technology, or the Professor who claimed to be in Guangzhou, China, but was in Vancouver. But the inability of E-mail to deliver a wider array of cues may hold great potential for adult education since those that normally denote status and power are irrelevant. Nobody cares about or even knows if the originator of messages is wearing a pinstripe, clown or birthday suit. Cues that normally circumscribe roles and foster or inhibit participation are not present. In a moderated discussion the moderator has power but in an unmoderated free-for-all participants can say what they like as often as is convenient.

Brand (1987) claims that the "most surprising quality in E-mail communities" is the human warmth they develop. Wonderous sub-cultures flourish on bulletin boards and, in his view, the odder the subject, the more warmhearted the participants. More than half a million Americans access CompuServe, Dow Jones and The Source, meeting in special interest groups and using an increasing array of other services. Usenet routes messages and daily newsletters among 3000 such systems around the world.

Thus far, little has been written on E-mail and adult education and the chief preoccupation has been with "educational" systems (e.g. AOLIN) or graduate courses (see Davie, 1987). Yet uncontrolled, unorganised exchanges are probably more portentous because people are taking over and using computers in a convivial fashion. Communication amateurs are becoming professionals and an electronic exemplar of Marilyn Ferguson's "Aquarian Conspiracy". Despite this, it is almost inevitable that work will begin with examples of "familiar" forms of education and, in these pages, the focus is the conference as a method of adult education.

The Computer Conference

Adult educators are historically preoccupied with participation, and how to foster it, and some conference organisers have been quick to harness the potential represented by E-mail. The remainder of this paper is concerned with two contrasting uses of E-mail for conferencing. The first was organised by AOLIN and, at the outset, involved nine educators in Australia, Canada, the U.S.A. and Australia. In this conference all exchanges were in writing - by E-mail. The second, was organised by a group attempting to establish a global electronic university. In this conference, E-mail was used to "produce" a panel discussion in eight active and numerous "listening" sites involving voice, slow-scan T.V., full motion video, text, data and graphics. The focus here is on the "affective" aspects of these discussions.

Australian Open Learning Information Network (AOLIN)

The AOLIN computer conference on distance education ran parallel with a face-to-face UNESCO meeting held at the same time at AOLIN headquarters at Deakin University, Victoria Australia (see Castro, 1987). There was an an agenda, an opening brainstorm, an opening speech, discussion groups, and closing remarks. A computer conference produces an masterfile of all contributions easily mined for research or reporting purposes. The rapporteur's job is easier than in a conventional conference. The AOLIN conference got off to a slow and formal start with some participants using the international link as an opportunity to advertise their journals or programs but, by the planned midpoint, had gathered momentum and the processes were becoming increasingly focussed and informal. At the halfway point the moderator extended sympathy to those new to E-mail as they "crawl up the learning curve". He also noted that procedures were being modified "on the run" so that if "you want to read my ramblings and ravings from the Chair, you don't have to get the whole catastrophe ... every time". In the latter part of the conferences "dispatches" consisting of message bundles were being received by the Canadian participants several times a day and one noted that it was not possible to work and attend the conference fulltime.

Different time zones meant that Canadian contributions were available for early morning perusal in Australia and evoked this comment from Canada. "Gooday you lot. Only three days to go and, as we swelter in a beautiful late summer day and wrestle immense salmon into the frying pan you are gulping down breakfast (it's 3.40 p.m. here and 8.40 a.m. there). I have just received the results of the latest discussions and will formulate a response tout de suite ... see you shortly ... before your lunch". The electronic participants also asked about and were introduced to the UNESCO delegates at the parallel face-to-face conference.

At the anticipated closing date for this conference North American contributions, previously inhibited by holidays, arrived en masse and the closing date was twice extended. Discussion became more animated, humour, use of first names, personal comments and rejoinders accelerated, and new participants signed-on using the Syracuse ADEDNET as a bridge. It is not possible in this space to explore what it felt like to be a "remote" or "on-site" participant in this conference although it appears that the "exhilirated and over-stimulated" moderator spoke for many when, in the wrap-up he said he had a "sense of exhiliration" and "yelled with delight at about 1 a.m. when reading Joyce's message about the tyranny of the human capital model". Later he observed that "the simple communication of text cannot be a complete substitute for personal interaction but ... can be a surprisingly warm and friendly medium". Even the operator of the Syracuse ADEDNET felt involved despite the fact "everyone else either lives in, is from, or has been to Australia ! Me ? Well, I've seen Crocoodile Dundee three times and can throw a boomerang ... does that count ?" These and similar remarks were in striking contrast to the formality at the opening of the conference.

The Global University Consortium

The GLOSAS (Global Systems Analysis and Simulation) project was designed to link various departments of Economics, Sociology and Political Science in universities around the Pacific. As part of an attempt to extend American education to Japan, the GLOSAS group organised a session at the "Education for the 21st Century Conference" held in Boston, October, 1987. During this discussion the distinguished panelists (Hazel Henderson, futurist; Robert Muller, Chancellor, U.N. University of Peace, Costa Rica; Glenn Olds, President, Alaska Pacific University, with Parker Rossman moderating in Boston, Takeshi Utsumi in Fort Collins, Colorado, James Miller (Chairman, University of the

World) in Los Angeles. There were eight active (i.e. participating) sites in North America and Asia, including Tokyo, and 125 "viewing or recording only" sites. In this conference communication was by voice and slow scan T.V. "On line", "real time" computer conferencing was used for back-up coordination so as Henderson spoke, Rossman, Utsumi and others orchestrated the ensuing questions, questions, comments and discussion. This meant that expensive satellite time, used to transmit the audio and slow scan pictures across the Pacific, could be used for the program content. As a result, the discussion had a smooth "produced" quality. The author was part of the M.I.T. group where the panelists were located. The slow scan pictures and video from the remote sites were of variable quality but the audio was excellent. This short conference was salutary because there was considerable congruence between the content espoused and the processes used. But, for present purposes, the genuine and unabashed joy manifested by the panelists, all of whom are experienced futurists who have long "lived" with the theory and practice of networking, was remarkably similar to the electronic smiles, chuckles, sense of satisfaction and goodwill that flowed from the Australian experience.

Numerous questions have arisen as a result of this work. They arise from an 'individualist' perspective and the extent to which 'non-electronic' social behaviour explains E-mail 'affect' and, from a 'social' perspective, the extent to which variables that shape 'normal' patterns of power and control in social intercourse, influence E-mail behaviour. Does the current fascination with and awareness of affect associated with E-mail arise from it's novelty ? To what extent does the motivation to use it arise from the fact it "smooths-out" variables normally associated with power and control, penetrates social and organisational hierarchies or, like the Delphi, ensures that all participants are heard ? Moreover, what variables explain the differential adoption and use of E-mail ?

Hopefully, this will not become another fad or panacea for the "participation problem" in adult education. But E-mail is here to stay and it is essential for adult educators to stress the distinction between 'schooling' (which is often didactic) and 'education' (which should involve participation and feedback) and tackle difficult conceptual and methodological problems already associated with nascent research in this area.

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A STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF EDUCATION ON NURSING STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD CANCER AND CANCER PATIENT CARE USING A SOLOMON FOUR GROUP DESIGN

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In North American society, "cancer" is a word that is associated with a relentless, consuming and disfiguring disease which leads to an extremely painful and isolated death (Buehler, 1975). Current literature suggests that these attitudes exist not only in the general population, but also permeate the sub-culture of health professionals including physicians and nurses (Law, 1982). Hence, it may be assumed that students entering nursing programs possess attitudes similar to the lay public, (Fulton, 1965). If students hold unfavourable attitudes toward cancer it could affect their assessment of patients, the way they plan nursing care and the actual administration of patient care. There is evidence that education can influence attitude change. Very few nursing schools offer a formal course in cancer nursing as part of the curriculum.

The purpose of this study is threefold: a) to measure changes in attitudes following academic and clinical learning, b) to explore correlates of the attitudes of senior nursing students toward cancer and cancer patient care, and c) to observe the degree of stability of these attitudes over time.

Literature Review

Few studies have dealt specifically with measurement of nursing students' attitudes regarding care of the cancer patient and the effect of classroom and clinical learning on these attitudes. Generally, the studies reviewed were descriptive or quasi-experimental in design. It is unclear the extent to which combinations of academic, experiential components, and other personal correlates for learning, contribute to a change in attitude. Variables such as classroom exposure and clinical experience contribute significantly to a positive attitude shift in nursing students who care for oncology, gerontology and dying patients (Crayton & Fass, 1982; Felton, Reed and Perla, 1981; Kennedy, 1984). Other contributing factors include age, past personal exposure to persons with cancer or the elderly, and length of clinical experience (Elkind, 1982).

A number of techniques have been used to elicit attitude change such as self learning modules, courses on death and dying and cancer nursing, and a two day seminar (Crayton & Fass, 1982; Hopping, 1977; Caty & Tamlyn, (1985). These techniques focussed on increasing students' awareness of their own values and attitudes in addition to acquisition of academic knowledge.

Attitude change in students included an increased interest and enjoyment in working with cancer patients or gerontology patients (Heller & Walsh, 1976), a more flexible and realistic attitude toward treatment outcomes (Elkind, 1982), and a reduction of anxiety and distress while nursing these patients (Snyder, Gertter & Ferneau, 1973).

Lindzey & Aronson (1969) described three salient components inherent in a persons attitudinal position: a) the cognitive element consisting of beliefs about the attitude object, b) the affective component consisting of the feelings connected with the beliefs and c) the behavioural tendency or readiness to respond in a particular way. These three components formed the conceptual framework for the present study. Since attitudes are learned through a process of socialization (Lindzey & Aronson, 1969) and since formal and informal educational experiences are part of that process, the present study was designed to determine whether a formal educational program in cancer nursing changes attitudes of student nurses toward cancer and cancer patient care.

The most suitable measurement of attitudes toward cancer patient care was a scale developed by Law (1982). This scale, the Cancer Attitude Scale, was developed in three phases using oncology and non-oncology nurses from three Canadian settings. Reliability and validity estimates were considered acceptable. The scale is composed of 30 attitude items relating to cancer and cancer patient care. Three subscales comprise the instrument: Attitudes Toward Cancer as a Disease, Attitudes Toward Communication, and Attitudes Toward Death and Dying.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided this study and refer to senior nursing students in a three year diploma hospital based program.

1. Senior nursing students upon completion of a formal education course in cancer nursing will have significantly more positive attitudes toward cancer than those students not receiving the course. This change will be maintained four months following completion of the course.
2. Senior nursing students upon completion of a formal education course in cancer nursing will have significantly more positive attitudes toward Cancer as a Disease, Communication and Death and Dying than those students not receiving the course. This change will be maintained four months following completion of the course.
3. The variables Satisfaction With Cancer Nursing, Satisfaction With Present Work, Personal Experience With Cancer, Previous Clinical Experience With Cancer Nursing, Rotation (program placement), Age and Treatment will be significantly associated with more positive Cancer Attitudes as a total score and the three subscales Cancer as a Disease, Communication, and Death and Dying.

METHOD

This study used a Solomon Four Group Design. It is the most rigorous of all commonly used experimental designs (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Subjects were third year students drawn from the 1985 and 1986 graduating classes of a three year hospital based diploma program. All were female. A total of 132 subjects were invited to take part. Of these subjects, 52 completed all measurements - 31 were in the experimental group and 21 were in the control group.

The experimental group received a cancer nursing course composed of 35 hours of theory, 162 hours of clinical practice on an oncology unit in an acute care hospital and 16 hours of observation in an out-patient cancer clinic. The course was six weeks in length. Program constraints precluded random assignment to the experimental group. However, the control group was drawn at random from the remainder of the class.

All subjects were surveyed regarding their attitudes and correlates of those attitudes using the Cancer Attitude Scale (Law, 1982). Correlates were those stated in hypothesis #2. Data were gathered at three times: immediately before (Time 1), immediately following (Time 2), and four months after completion of the course (Time 3).

For Year 1 a Solomon Four Group Design was used to test for the presence of a potential interaction between testing and treatment. The results indicated that there was no interaction ($F=.01$; df 1,42; $p > .05$). Therefore, the design was modified to a pre-test, post-test, control group design for the second year of data collection. Only data from subjects completing all three measurements of the Cancer Attitude Scale were used for the analyses.

RESULTS

The results are presented with respect to each of the three major hypotheses in turn. All analyses of variance were 2 x 3 repeated measures.

Hypothesis #1 - Results indicate that the experimental group had significantly more positive attitudes than the control group as measured on the total score of the Cancer Attitude Scale immediately after intervention ($F=8.28$; df 1,50; $p < .01$). There was also a significant main effect of Time ($F=7.51$; df 2,100; $p < .001$). Post hoc analyses (Sheffes) showed a significant difference between Times 1 and 3 but not between Times 2 and 3. This finding indicates that pre-treatment scores were significantly lower than immediately post-treatment and lower than at the four month follow-up.

A significant interaction between Treatment and Time was also found ($F=3.48$; df 2,100; $p < .05$). Treatment and Control groups did not differ at Time 1. Immediately post-treatment, the groups were significantly different. This significant difference was also evident at the four month follow-up.

Hypothesis #2 - Analysis of the Cancer as a Disease Subscale indicated that there was a main effect for Treatment ($F=6.86$; df 1,50; $p < .05$). There as also a main effect for time ($F=7.05$; df 2,100; $p < .01$). Post hoc analysis showed that Time 1 differed significantly from Time 2 and Time 3. Times 2 and 3 did not differ from each other. No significant interaction between Treatment and Time was found ($F=1.85$; df 2,100; $p > .05$).

Results of analyses on the Communication Subscale indicated that there was a main effect for Treatment ($F=9.23$; df 1,50; $p < .01$). There was also a main effect for Time ($F=4.94$; df 2,100; $p < .01$). Post hoc analyses indicated that the significant differences were between Time 1 and Time 2 and between Time 2 and Time 3. There was no significant difference between Time 1 and Time 3. A significant interaction between Treatment and Time ($F=3.96$; df 2,100; $p < .05$) was found. Post hoc analyses indicated that at Time 1 both Treatment and Control groups were not significantly different. While the Treatment groups differed from Time 1 and Time 2 the Control groups did not differ from each other from Time 1 to Time 2. At

Time 3 the Treatment group maintained a significant difference from the Control group.

The analysis of variance on the Death and Dying subscale indicated that there was no main effect for Treatment (F=3.13; df 2,50; $p > .05$). There was, however, a main effect for Time (F=3.73; df 2,100; $p < .05$), Post hoc analysis indicated that the significant difference was between Times 2 and 3 or between Times 1 and 3. No interaction between Treatment and Time was found for this subscale (F=1.45; df 2,100; $p > .05$).

Hypothesis #3 - Results of the multiple regression analysis on the total Cancer Attitude Scale, as the dependent variable, demonstrated that the variance accounted for was 46% of the total. The variable Satisfaction With Cancer Nursing was the only variable to enter the equation significantly (F=29.27; df 1,42, $p < .001$). However, when Treatment was entered with Satisfaction With Cancer Nursing it was no longer significant.

When the subscale scores were used as dependent variables similar results were found. Satisfaction With Cancer Nursing was the most significant predictor of scores in the subscale Cancer as a Disease (F=30.73; df 1,42; $p < .001$). No other variable entered significantly. Similarly, Satisfaction With Cancer Nursing was the first variable to enter the regression equation when Death and Dying scores were used as the dependent variable (F=28.30; df 1,42; $p < .001$). No other variables entered significantly. The exception was the results of the Communication subscale. For this dependent variable the first predictor in the equation was Treatment (F=11.72; df 1,42; $p < .001$). No other variables entered the equation significantly.

DISCUSSION

The Solomon Four Group Design controlled for the effect of potential testing by treatment interaction. As well strict control was maintained over teaching strategies, course content and clinical experience during data collection. A major concern was the inability to assign subjects randomly to the experimental group. However, an examination of the experimental and control group pre-test scores indicated that there was no significant differences in scores.

The formal education program influenced attitudes toward cancer as a global entity positively and that change was stable over a period of four months post treatment. It can be concluded, therefore, that the educational program had a significant influence on the attitudes of the students.

The data relating to the Cancer as a Disease subscale represents the cognitive component of cancer attitudes. The positive findings suggest that those students who received the course knew more at the end of the course about the beliefs of cancer as a disease than the control group. This knowledge was sustained over time.

With regards to the Communication subscale, the educational program influenced the attitudes of the experimental group in a positive direction and that these attitudes were sustained four months later. This significant result is possibly related to the teaching of communication skills in relation to cancer patients and the opportunity for subjects to interact on a day to day basis with cancer patients, their families and other health team members. Also to be considered, is that open and honest communications were modelled by oncology nursing staff on the unit. Experienced staff acted as preceptors to the students. Hence, students in the treatment group experienced a subculture where they worked daily with positive role models and came face to face with patients and families working through the acceptance of the diagnosis and their own mortality. This same experience was not available to the control group.

Data relating to the Death and Dying subscale indicated that the educational course had no signficant effect on attitudes. There was, however, a significant difference in attitudes from Time 1 to Time 2 within the two groups with the treatment group experiencing the greater change. Many students in the treatment group would have experienced a death of a patient or patients and may have felt more comfortable with death than students not having had the experience of a patient's death. This attitude change was n ot sustained over time. A possible explanation for this finding could relate to avoidance behaviors toward death and dying that are so inculcated in our society that a six week course may not be sufficient time to sustain attitude change.

Results of the multiple regression analysis on the total Cancer Attitude Scale as the dependent variable demonstrated that the variable Satisfaction With Cancer Nursing accounted for a very large proportion of the total variance. When Treatment was entered with Satisfaction With Cancer Nursing it was no longer significant. This suggests that there is an intercorrelation between these two predictor variables. This notion is supported by Kennedy's (1984) findings. The remaining variables did not add to our understanding of attitudes toward cancer and cancer nursing.

In relation to the subscales Cancer as a Disease and Death and Dying the variable Satisfaction With Cancer Nursing entered significantly and accounted for a large proportion of the variance. Again this variable is a good predictor of positive attitudes. Of particular interest are the results of the Communication subscale. The only variable to enter significantly was Treatment and this result supports the findings demonstrated earlier that the cancer education course is a reasonable predictor of positive attitudes toward cancer and cancer patient care.

Future research in this area should include more descriptive studies to identify other variables associated with cancer and cancer nursing. Also, it would be useful to study influence of classroom learning and clinical practice in the formation of attitudes. Such a study might use an attitude measure other than a paper and pencil test.

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TEAM TUTORING: DOUBLING THE ASSISTANCE TO DISTANCE LEARNERS

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INTRODUCTION

This paper describes a team-tutoring experiment at the University of British Columbia. Seeking ways to maximize support to distance education students, two experienced tutors joined forces to double the assistance in order to enhance learning, available to students of one specific course. Students thus had access to a greater pool of professional expertise and, as well, were assured of having at least one tutor available for telephone consultation at any time. To be effectively carried out, this team-tutoring experiment required innovations in a number of areas, including administration. A major consideration was the perception of the distance students about the usefulness and effectiveness of the team-tutoring approaches. This paper will highlight the formative evaluation of students' reactions and perceptions.

The University of B.C. in Vancouver, B.C. has offered distance education courses since 1949. Course are primarily print-based, although some have audio or television components. In the 1986/87 fiscal year, 1,208 students were registered in distance education courses through the Guided Independent Study (G.I.S.)division of the university. Free telephone service is available to students within the province of B.C. to provide access to tutors and administrative offices.

The academic department of Adult Education offers several of its Diploma in Adult Education courses through G.I.S. The two tutors involved in this project - each of whom had experience tutoring courses in the Adult Education Department joined forces to team-tutor one of the more popular Adult Education Diploma courses entitled "Developing Short Courses, Workshops and Seminars."

LITERATURE REVIEW

Roles and functions of the distance education tutor are crucial variables in learning at a distance. Although few reports from research on the tutor's functions and tasks are published (Rekkedal, 1985), distance educators seem to agree that the two-way communication between student and tutor is the backbone of correspondence education and an important element in distance education in general (Holmberg, 1974). Indeed, it is argued that few students are able to succeed in a course through self-instructional materials alone; a balance must be struck between the teaching package and the advisory and mediating function (Sewart, 1982). This mediating function, taken on by the tutor, is crucial because of the physical separation of student and institution.

In considering the roles of the tutor, Davies, (1977), suggests that the tutor needs to have the intellectual and emotional stamina to provide continuing support for adult learners who are facing problems rarely encountered by students in institution-based courses. The range of roles and functions of a tutor suggested by distance educators includes facilitator (Sewart, 1981, Robinson, 1981), advisor, guide, mentor, critic and problem-solver (Loewenthal, Blackwelder, Broomall, 1980). Lewis (1982) suggests a dual role--utor as friend and tutor as teacher/assessor. Loewenthal et al (1984) have categorized the activities undertaken by a tutor as tone-setting, encouragement, guidance and evaluation. Daniel and Marquis (1979) characterize the central activity of a tutor as entering into a dialogue with the student.

The wide variety of roles and activities a tutor may be called upon to perform is an indicator of the range of concerns or problems a distance education student may face. For a student who is isolated from the institution and the usual support systems, access to a tutor who will help resolve problems or concerns is an important support. Further, the timing of such access may be crucial.

Telephone communication between student and tutor is seen by distance students to be a positive support. In describing the response of students to teletutoring Burge(1984) reported that "telephone talks enable learners to resolve difficulties, clarify objectives and directions, get quick feedback, and reduce anxieties." The question of access to tutor support was a key concern underlying the team-tutoring experiment described in this paper and telephone communication was seen as a core element.

METHODOLOGY

The team tutoring approach required innovations in administration, and in student-tutor, tutor-tutor, and tutor-institution communications. The two tutors developed an effective student management system, a plan for systematic and frequent sharing of information and reviewing of student progress. More importantly, given that the project was initiated to provide greater support for students, the tutors maintained regular contact with students - both by telephone and by letter - to monitor their reactions to and perception of this innovative approach. In order to gauge student perceptions in a more formalized way, and to provide a basis for modifying the team tutoring approach (if necessary), a formative evaluation was conducted.

An introductory letter was mailed to new students at registration informing them of the team approach to tutoring and suggesting that their feedback about the course and the tutoring approach would be important. For the project, twenty-one questionnaires were mailed approximately 3 months after the September registration; 13 (62%) were returned. A covering letter was included with the evaluation form, reminding students of the experimental nature of the tutoring for the course and soliciting their perception of the content and process to date.

The instrument used a Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. For reporting purposes, the strongly disagree-disagree and strongly agree-agree categories were collapsed to disagree or agree. Open-ended statements allowed for student responses. Although there were prescribed dates for assignments, and for the final exam, these were not rigidly enforced. Thus it is possible that not all students handed in the same number of assignments. Also, because of the bimonthly enrollment for GIS courses, students were in varying stages of involvement with the course. All students surveyed had been in the course at least 2 1/2 months; students who had been registered for only 1 month were not surveyed (they would not have handed in any assignments). Anonymity was guaranteed; student responses were unsigned and mailed to GIS, not to the tutors.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

The results indicated that students were generally satisfied with the team approach to tutoring. Table 1 summarizes the responses to the team-tutoring process. It shows that students were generally satisfied with the support and accessibility that two tutors offered in providing telephone contact and in marking assignments (Items 1-8). Regarding the access to two tutors (Item 5, "Compared with other correspondence courses I have taken involving a single tutor, I like the idea of having access to two tutors/resource persons."), there were more undecided or non-responses than to other questions. This may indicate uncertainty, or that this was the first correspondence course for these students.

Open-ended responses to team-tutoring ranged from liking the increased access to tutors, to uncertainty about which tutor to contact. "I feel positive regarding the team-tutoring process. I feel I have two support systems rather than one. This is very comforting because this is my first correspondence course." I've liked having my assignments marked by two people with different points of view. It helps keep things in perspective. It would be interesting to see both instructors' comments on the same assignment."

IMPLICATIONS

Keeping in mind the exploratory nature of this formative evaluation, there are several findings which those involved in distance education/correspondence course development and delivery could note. First, students seemed to be very satisfied with the increased availability and access to more than the usual single tutor. Tutors provide the only access most students have to university and department administration. And tutors are generally available at times when other services are not (e.g., evenings and weekends) for advising, encouragement, support, and general questions and answers. In essence, tutors provide the primary link between institutions and students, and what better means to strengthen that link that to double the assistance by doubling the number of tutors.

TABLE 1
Responses to Team Tutoring Process

Statement	**Responses*** Agreement	Undecided	Disagreement
1. Comfortable contacting tutors	13	0	0
2. Adequate Access to tutors	13	0	0
3. Tutors' comments on assignments	13	0	0
4. Telephone conversations helpful	11	2	0
5. Access to two tutors, rather than one appreciated	6	4	0
6. Tutor-initiated telephone contact adequate	9	2	1
7. Comfortable with team-tutoring approach	12	1	0
8. Able to reach one tutor whenever necessary	11	2	0

*** All rows may not add up to 13 due to non-responses**

A second implication of this research project provides confirmation of other research that telephone contact for distant learners is of critical importance. Many students study by correspondence because they do not feel comfortable in class settings. Human contact with a tutor can provide support and encouragement, thereby increasing the likelihood of completion and further study. Other students take correspondence study because their schedules do not allow class attendance. Tutors provide interaction at times more favorable to these students. For those programs or institutions not providing easy and/or free telephone access for students, this could be an area of consideration.

Whatever the motivation for study by correspondence, it is important for adult educators--as much as administrators, tutors, curriculum developers--to provide as much assistance to distant learners as possible. One way of doing this is to provide for two tutors for each course and/or student--thereby doubling the assistance and support services for these students. This team-tutoring project at UBC did just that--and was judged positive for tutors and learners.

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SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING: NEW PERSPECTIVES FOR PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

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The purpose of this paper is to bring together a range of ideas about professional practice, adult learning and adult development which may help to inform educational practice and assist educators to address the imbalance between self-directed learning as a methodology and as a sense of responsibility for one's own learning. It does not purport to provide applied solutions, only to provide a perspective which may prove to be helpful in addressing the issue.

The argument will be put forward that self direction can only be fostered by the educational setting achieving a balanced stance toward learning which recognizes the learner in all his attributes; a stance which provides learning processes to support learning not just as the acquisition of knowledge and skills but as the development of the person. It will be argued also that an acknowledgement of the person's needs in all its aspects provides a better prepared and more competent practitioner, and that this requires a rebalancing of the current approach to the education of professionals. What is needed to achieve professional competence is to deal more directly with what we call the learner's developmental tasks, through collaborative dialogue between teacher and learner rather than the exclusive transmission of facts to create a more glorified technician.

Self-directed Learning

It is important at this point to make clear what it means to be self-directed in learning. As young professionals, we learn the requisite skills and techniques associated with competent performance. What we may fail to learn is the importance of taking responsibility for our own learning. This is how we understand ourselves, that is, we have a consciousness of ourselves as learners, rather than as mere vessels to be filled with information.

The American Association of Medical Colleges in its report "Physicians for the Twenty-First Century" (AAMC, 1984) show concern about the promotion of self-directed learning in the medical practitioner. Their definition of self-directed learning povides a good starting point for this paper:

> Learning skills are processes by which students or professionals acquire knowledge that contributes to professional development and improvement of patient care. Mastery of learning skills enables them to assume major responsibility for the planning and evaluation of their own learning efforts. Self-directed learning is considered a crucial part of professional development and refers to the

> individual taking primary initiative and respnsibility for learning. It also implies control by the learner over the learning process, including decisions over what to learn, and over what period of time.

This definition recognizes the two key notions in self-directed learning which have recently been elucidated by Stephen Brookfield (1986). Brookfield makes explicit the two perspectives implicit in the literature and current theorizing. One is the notion of self-directed learning as a methodology, as a technical facility with learning techniques which allow the learner to plan, program and evaluate his own learning endeavors. The second is the idea that self-directed learning is a kind of consciousness, a state of being in which one takes responsibility for one's own learning.

Why is Self-Directed Learning Important for the Preparation of the Practitioner?

There is a correspondence between the person as student and the person as practitioner. In both situations, the individual acts as a person. If preparation for practice fosters in the person as student a stance toward the world which does not correspond to the stance required later in "the real world", he is faced with the need to make major personal changes. His response may be to take up the challenge or it may be to retreat to the less adequate stance with which he is familiar. If this is so, then what stance does the world of competent professional practice demand of those who enter it?

In The Reflective Practitioner (1983), Donald Schon investigates the gap which he perceives between theoretical and practical knowledge. For Schon, the root of this problem is the impact of "technical rationality" upon our view of what constitutes knowledge. In technical rationality "professional activity consists in problem-solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique". Schon does not agree. According to his investigation, the competent practitioner does not in fact employ such a linear approach to his work. His approach is far more complex and sophisticated than the model of technical rationality would indicate. Schon's description of professional practice goes a long way toward explaining that ability of the professional to deal with the realities of practice: Its complexity, uncertainty, instability, uniqueness, and especially its value conflicts. This ability, which has been described as the artistry of the professional, has been considered to be unteachable. Further, Schon's work finds that there are consistencies in the ways in which professionals go about their work, and in their methods for inquiry. These consistencies are not just within a given professional group but are between professional groups as well. They are the consistencies of learning which do not know the bounds of professional disciplines. These can be opened up and conceptualized so they can be communicated and therefore learned more readily.

Schon's description and analysis of the world of the practitioner leads him to devise a new view of the knowledge which the practitioner uses, which he refers to as knowing in action, which he describes as having the following properties:

- "There are actions, recognitions, and judgments which we know how to carry out spontaneously; we do not have to think about them prior to or during their performance.

- We are often unaware of having learned to do these things; we simply find ourselves doing them. (p 54)

Knowing in action is transformed by Schon's second major concept, reflection in action, which he considers to be a different kind of knowing. This is the process of knowledge building and refinement which is part of the ongoing process of making sense of the world. A key element for engendering reflection in action is surprise, in the sense of observing a result which is not expected and requires the observer to revise his knowledge of the situation.

For Schon then, the critical element of the situation is reflection in practice. It is here where the practitioner modifies his approach to a situation which does not fit within the standard strategies of knowing in practice. He is always experimenting with the situation and modifying it to accommodate to this previous learning. "He may reflect on the tacit norms and appreciations which underly a judgment, or on the strategies and theories implicit in a pattern of behavior. He may reflect on the feeling for a situation which has led him to adopt a particular course of action, on the way in which he has framed the problem he is trying to solve, or on the role he has constructed for himself." Any or all of these are possibilities.

Schon goes on to describe the process of professional practice as a reflective dialogue with the situation in which the practitioner carries out several steps. He first frames the problem and in so doing shapes the situation. He evaluates the experiment in framing the situation by 1) his ability to solve the problem he has set out; 2) by his appreciation of the unintended effects of his action; 3) by his ability, in conversation with the situation to produce a result that is coherent and an idea that is understandable; and 4) by its ability to keep the inquiry moving. He next experiments with his shaping of the situation to discover what consequences and implications can be made to follow from it. He tries to adapt the situation to the frame. "The practitioner's moves also produce unintended changes in himself which give the situations new meanings. ... The situation talks back, the practitioner listens, and as he appreciates what he hears, he reframes the situation again." (p. 131-132)

The importance of Schon's work for the education of professionals is clear in this formulation of the situation in practice: Neither learning, nor professional practice are linear processes. Learning does not take place exclusively in a straight line, and this is why Schon takes exception to the concept of technical rationality.

The notion upon which technical rationality is based is simply not powerful enough to deal with the complexities of practice. The learning paradigm upon which most higher education is based, i.e., basic knowledge in pure science, followed by applied science, followed by development of skill in application, is not congruent with the reality of how practitioners make meaning of the situations which confront them, nor is it congruent with the way people learn. Rather, it often fosters a notion of knowledge and practice which will promote in the learner a dependency and a fear of change rather than an openness to change and continuous learning in and through practice.

Learning as Meaning-Making

Learning has been described as a process of meaning making. "The purpose of learning is to enable us to understand the meaning of our experiences and to realize values in our lives. For the most part we learn new meanings by spelling out an experience and then by validating our interpretation of its meanings." (Mezirow, 1985). This definition describes experience as central to learning and points to the process of tying an experience to a meaning framework or perspective which reflects our essential or accepted values. In a clear way it brings out the non-linear nature of the process of learning which corresponds to the non-linear approach of the practitioner described by Schon.

For Mezirow learning is the process whereby we acquire, learn to operate within, and transform meanings perspectives.

> Meaning perspective refers to the structure of cultural and psychological assumptions within which our past experience assimilates and transforms new experience. It is a frame of reference made up from a system of meaning schemes. Meaning schemes are sets of related expectations governing cause-effect relationships; roles; values; and making connections between feelings and action. They guide the way in which we experience, feel, judge, and act upon our situation. A meaning perspective positions us for action. By defining our expectations, it also selectively orders what we learn and how we learn it. (p. 21-22)

A professional school is striving to share with the learner the meaning-making perspective of that profession, so that the practitioner will choose, be able to attend to, and act on those phenomena which will prove to have meaning within the framework of that particular practice. One need only be an observer at a hospital, and try to account for the difference in the activity between the health professionals and the non-professionals. They attend to different things and act in different ways. The health care professional, in accordance with his role, goes about his job in a purposeful and meaningful way by choosing to attend to certain occurrences in the treatment of a patient in a hospital, and will act in response to his observations in a way which has meaning within the framework of his profession. By contrast, the layman in the same situation cannot but be confused. He does not know what to pay attention to, or what to act on. He has very limited capacity to make meaning of what is going on around him because he is not operating from the doctor's meaning-making perspective.

Mezirow goes on to describe three types of learning:

> Instrumental learning: task-oriented problem-solving that is relevant for controlling the environment or other people;
> Dialogic learning: by which we attempt to understand what others mean in communicating with us;
> Self-reflective learning: by which we come to understand ourselves. (Mezirow, 1981)

For the student, the process of learning to become a professional is the process of learning a brand new meaning perspective. The learning of "knowledge" and "skills" is an embodiment of this learning in the instrumental and dialogic domains: The student acquires knowledge and solves problems largely through understanding what others are communicating to him.

What Mezirow stresses, however, is that the learning of the "values and attitudes" which have been identified here as being necessary to competent practice, including the notion of responsibility for one's own learning, takes place in the self-reflective domain.

To the extent that the learning of a new meaning perspective is congruent with existing values and assumptions of the learner, the acquiring of the new meaning perspective can go on unhindered by conflict. To the extent that it is not congruent, the assumptions underlying the existing perspective must be surfaced and examined. Thus, to the extent that the learner has assimilated the passive stance of an earlier learning experience, the notion of self-direction as conceived here will be resisted until these assumptions can be surfaced and examined for their adequacy. This is the process which Mezirow calls perspective transformation. It requires not the learning of a new meaning scheme nor learning how to operate within a existing meaning scheme. It requires the transformation of existing meaning schemes.

That this process is difficult for the learner is known by all who engage in a first self-directed learning endeavour in a traditional institution. That it is also an important part of the process of learning for professional competence has been indicated by the work of Schon as well as that of Mezirow. That it is also important as part of the experience of the young adult undertaking a program of professional study will be apparent as we move to a discussion of developmental learning.

Developmental Learning

The idea that adults as well as children change in the way that they interact with the world is no longer new. The evidence of the last decades indicates that people change so that growth and learning are reflected in the changes (Erickson, Kohlberg, Loevinger, Perry). Many of the developments seem to be the product of the interaction of the individual at various stages of innate ability with the cultural environment. Thus many of the characteristics of the person's development are culture-specific. Professionalization is also culture-specific. Ideally, developmental achievements would integrate the learner into the professionalization process by providing the learner with an optimal meaning perspective. This would carry him into professional school with a view of the nature of knowledge, of learning and professional practice which would facilitate both professional learning and professional practice.

Learning for professional practice, like the real world of professional practice itself, is unlike anything which the learner has encountered previously and so it provides new challenges to student's meaning perspectives. In addition, there is a sequential series of stages through which a student moves to achieve a professional adult meaning perspective. It also provides us with a framework by which we can set our course for designing developmental educational objectives.

In an article entitled "Developmental Change as a Major Outcome," Arthur Chickering (1976) synthesizes, integrates and charts various developmental theories. His message is that the reality of developmental tasks which confront students in higher education has implications for the providers of that education. They must deal with these developmental tasks or the learner will be disadvantaged. Among the tasks or characteristics which the developmentalists describe is an openness to the complexity of the world with the ability to mange it comfortably. This requires a view of knowledge as coming not solely "from external authority; from asking how to get things." It requires a view of knowledge as coming from personal integration of information based on rational inquiry; from setting goals; from asking what is needed, how things work and why", and as well "from personal experience and reflection; personally generated paradigms, insights, judgements." (p. 90-91) In this description there is a correspondence with Donald Schon's reflective practitioner, reflecting in action and managing complexity through learning: Knowledge comes "from personal experience and reflection; personally generated paradigms, insights, judgements."

If a student views knowledge as determined by external authority and not by personal integration and personal experience; and if he views learning processes as imitation and memorization and not as discovery and openness to new experiences, then he is at a distinct disadvantage in being able to manage complexity in practice. The anomaly which the less adequate position creates in the student's ability to make meaning of a self-directed learning program requires that this meaning perspective be transformed, that its underlying assumptions be surfaced and examined for their adequacy. It is what Mezirow has described as perspective transformation in the self-reflective domain, where one learns about oneself. And it is at the heart of developmental growth. It is fully engaged in a learner's move to self-direction in learning.

What provision is made for the achievement of developmental tasks in our professional schools? Have professional educators fallen into the trap which Mezirow describes, as treating all learning as instrumental learning? In moving towards self-directed learning as we have defined it here, educators also move a significant way towards providing a framework for learning which corresponds more closely with the view of professional meaning-making put forward by Schon. In doing so they also saddle themselves with the task of helping students to transform an existing perspective on the nature of learning and knowledge, and must make provision for the appropriate learning transformation processes to do that.

Finding A New Balance

Based upon the theory and research outlined here it is proposed that the introduction of self-direction in learning allows for a new balance in professional training which takes account of our greater understanding of practice and developmental growth. The new balance which is proposed is threefold but interrelated. It involves:

1) a rebalancing of the view of knowledge between linear and absolute to iterative and contextual to take account of Schons view of reflective practice;

2) a corresponding rebalancing of the view of learning from other directed to self-directed to take account of the view of knowledge and learning described by Chickering: and

3) a further corresponding rebalancing of the teaching/learning transaction to teaching viewed as dialogue and collaborative diagnosis rather than as transmission (Tiberius, 1986) in order to more

adequately respond to the learning functions and processes described by Mezirow.

In the first two rebalancings, one moves closer to the reality of practioner knowlede creation and use. In the third, one provides a teaching/learning framework which allows for the incorporation of the previous notions and provides for the transformational learning which may be necessary for the student to acquire the professional's meaning perspective including the need to take responsibility for one's own learning.

Daloz (1986) employs the model of a mentorship to describe the relationship between teacher and student to foster development in adulthood. He describes this role as one in which the mentor, by combining support, challenge, and the providing of vision in optimal proportions, promotes developmental learning. Others have designed courses in institutions of higher education, incorporating appropriate elements of challenge and support to foster developmental learning by students.

What is proposed is not the exclusivity of a new pole on the continuum but the achievement of a new equilibrium between the two poles to more directly take account of that which has been neglected. It is a position which addresses the student as adult learner and has been an important part of the practice of adult education (Brundage and MacKeracher 1980).

The promotion of this rebalancinng requires the revision of the content, process, and administration of professional school programs in order to support the positions described here It is within these settings that the students and their teachers are presented with the opportunity for the establishement of a relationship which emphasizes teaching as dialogue. It is where the expertise of the guide or mentor can be of assistance to the student trying to make meaning of the experiences of professional training. As William Perry has written, the actions of educators in fostering development are intended to "invite students, intrigue them, and support them. The rest must come from the student." (1978, p. 62)

For Mezirow, the great tragedy of adult learning programs is that they treat most learning as if it were instrumental. The acquisition by a learner of a new way of making meaning is more that the receipt by the learner of information from a source of transmission. He comes to the learning situation with an existing meaning perspective. It is in some ways characteristic of his develomental age and it governs his expectations about what professional practice is about, what learning is, what knowledge is and how it is used in practice. He will also have a set of assumptions about himself and his own relationship to the learning and practice situations. To the extent that learning requires an examination of all of these meaning schemes by the learner, either through a process of learning a new meaning perspective of transforming an existing one, it demands a response from the educator which is congruent with the process engaged within the learner.

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DISTANCE DELIVERY TO NORTHERN SITES BY COMPUTER CONFERENCE

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The Department of Educational Foundations at the University of Alberta is currently delivering a course to five distant sites using computer conferencing and electronic mail as delivery modes. The course began in January, 1988, and will continue through April, 1988.

These computer based delivery modes offer a number of advantages to the distant learner. Like correspondence instruction, they are based on communication in print; unlike correspondence, however, they give a turnaround time for printed interactions measured in hours rather than weeks. Like audio-teleconferencing, computer conferencing offers the possibility of group discussions in which the participants are distant from each other; unlike audio-teleconferencing, however, the computer conference keeps a permanent record of all discussion which can be reviewed by participants at their leisure. This feature frees the computer conference from the necessity of sustaining "real time" communication. Participants can connect to the conference at their convenience, read what has been added since their last signon, and leave their own new contributions for others to read. Finally, every computer conferencing system, though basically designed for "public" discussion among all the participants, also contains an electronic mail facility for the transmission of private messages between participants.

Computer conferencing has been used as a mode of instruction (usually as an adjunct to other modes such as classroom lectures) in a number of locations, including the University of Alberta and the University of Calgary. However, its use as a distance delivery mode is rather less common. [1] While it has been so used at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, New Jersey Institute of Technology, and several other locations, the course we are presently teaching is, to our knowledge, the first use in Alberta of computer conferencing for distance education.

This experiment was begun at this time for a number of reasons. First, the Department of Educational Foundations is attempting to re-establish its contacts with students distant from the university, particularly in northern regions. These contacts were formerly maintained through sending out instructors to give courses by face-to-face instruction at various sites. In recent years, however, this activity has had to be curtailed due to budget restrictions and a reluctance on the part of many tenured staff to take on such assignments. Affordable and effective distance education delivery modes were therefore seen as a possible alternative.

Becuase of the co-occurrence of several favourable conditions a distance education course utilizing computer conferencing and electronic mail in combination with printed materials seemed to offer particular promise in our present circumstances. The University of Alberta maintains two computer conferencing systems on one of its mainframe computers, and Computing Services was willing to donate computer time for purposes of instruction. The otherwise prohibitive telecommunications costs associated with connecting computers at a number of sites have been greatly reduced by the establishment of the TINA facility (Tele Information Network of Alberta), which permits computer communications over regular telephone lines, but at highly subsidized rates. Finally, the Department of Industrial and Vocational Education at the U. of A. has begun offering a B.Ed. through an outreach program in which the students are mainly instructors at Alberta colleges. One of the required courses in this program is an Educational Foundations course on Canadian education.

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[1] Probably the best collections of articles on computer conferencing and electronic mail in general, as well as their use for instructional purposes, are the proceedings of the first (1985) and second (1987) Guelph symposia on computer conferencing (see references).

Since the college instructors would all have access to computers at their place of work, it was felt that this group of students would be ideal for a first attempt at distance education using a computer conference as a principal delivery mode.

The course which is offered by this means is titled "Education in Canada: Selected Topics". It is a basic course in the history and sociology of education in Canada, but its format is flexible enough that it can be adapted to the needs of the particular group of students in the course. In the present course, for example, while two of the four units focus on schools of thought in educational history and concepts used by historians and social scientists, and a third concentrates on an educational innovation which affected mostly rural Alberta, the fourth is specially focussed on adult and vocational education - the area in which the students are currently employed.

This course content is carried largely by readings which were distributed to the students before and during the course. Questions intended to guide the students in their reading of these selections were "seeded" into the computer conference. As the students enter their responses to these questions, or their own original comments, individualized feedback is sent back to them by the instructors via the electronic mail system. Electronic mail is also used for course housekeeping matters and general chit-chat.

To some extent the materials and questions adhere to a three part sequence which can be briefly summarized as follows: 1) the students obtain from the assigned literature specific information and a familiarity with certain concepts; 2) the students respond to questions representative of all levels of Bloom's taxonomy; and 3) the students *themselves* ask questions about material selected by them and submitted for peer comment. The nature of computer conferencing, in which participants can make entries at a time of their own choosing, gives students time to construct well thought out responses to questions at the analysis, synthesis, and evaluation levels. Students' responses in the present course have certainly been of a very high quality. In regular classroom situations or in audio-teleconferencing situations, in contrast, the level of response to higher level questions tends to be lower because of time and group constraints.

As we pass the mid point of the course, we now have a fairly clear idea of what problems are involved in use of this delivery mode in our particular situation; we also have some ideas as to how to better cope with these difficulties in subsequent courses.

One source of difficulty is the administrative procedure of the university. In winter session courses, students are allowed to register even after the course has begun. This is very convenient for most distance education courses, as the instructor is able to take registrations at the time of the first face to face session in the course. For this particular course, however, the university's regulations allowing last minute course registrations proved to be a serious difficulty, as we were unable to ascertain *where* our students would be, let alone *who* they would be, until the course started. This exacerbated the technical problems that followed, as they had to be dealt with when the course was already underway. We had no opportunity to thoroughly test the communications system beforehand, or to train the students in its use. Though we held face to face sessions at our five sites during the first weeks of the course, and distributed simplified guides to the U. of A. computer systems that the students were to use, this was not a sufficient substitute for giving the students several hours of hands on practice with the system under favourable conditions *before* they had to deal with the content of the course as well. Last minute registrations had not posed such problems for the other courses in the outreach program because they use audio-teleconferencing, which is a rather well tested delivery mode (at least to these sites) and does not require the students to master new techniques - they already know how to use the telephone, and a teleconferencing convener isn't much different. In contrast, as one of our students remarked, computer conferencing and electronic mail requires the students to learn five new systems (the operating system of their micro, their communications software, the operating system of the university mainframe, the conferencing system, and the electronic mail system).

The technical problems encountered by the students have been a constant source of frustration. Although the university mainframe has crashed briefly a few times during the course, most of the difficulties have come from the modems and telecommunications software used at the students' sites. At two sites the students' micros are hooked up through the college's minicomputer; this has caused additional problems, as it adds another link in the chain of communication, and one that seems particularly prone to trouble. It should be noted here, however, that the help offered to our students by the computer technicians at the colleges has been absolutely vital. Without their help most of our students would have been unable to continue using (or even start using) this mode of instruction. In many ways the colleges have been functioning as the "distance education learning centres" recommended for Alberta by the recent Organizing Distance Education Alternatives report (1987), similar to the network of such centres used by the Open University in Britain.

At this point, our tentative conclusions regarding this delivery mode in our particular circumstances are as follows:

1. To accomodate this delivery mode, the university's administrative procedures have to be adjusted. Instructors have to know where their students are several weeks before the course starts, so that the telecommunications system can be tested before the students start using it. This should avoid the initial frustrating difficulties that most of our students have encountered.

2. As Dueck and Buhr observe (1987, p. 8), instruction by means of a computer network rates only "marginal" with respect to its "humanizing" effect on distance education. While some of our students have expressed satisfaction with and liking for this delivery mode, others have remarked on its lack of human contact and interaction. If we teach a course using this delivery mode again, we will probably begin with one initial on-campus meeting for all the students, and supplement the computer-mediated interaction with an occasional audio-teleconference. This should help to establish and maintain a "group" feeling - something that is largely absent in our present course. Such arrangements would be contingent on the students having relatively easy access to Edmonton. We are considering the possibility of providing courses to communities in the high Arctic. Needless to say, the costs of bringing students from such a distance or of meeting them in their communities would be prohibitive.

3. The ancillary learning required of the students - learning how to use the computer and telecommunications systems - must be handled differently. While we supplied students with guides to the use of the U. of A. computer system and held brief introductory meetings, and one or both of the instructors made subsequent visits at intervals of a few weeks, this was not good enough. More hands on practice with the system, with help near at hand, is needed at the beginning of the course. In future courses, the initial meeting (probably a full day) will feature several hours of practice with the U. of A. computer system with the instructors nearby to deal with problems.

To reduce problems having to do with the equipment at the students' sites, in future we may issue a copy of a standardized communications package to each site and require that it be used. This will allow the production of a standardized instruction sheet and make it easier for us to assist students who encounter communications problems. The present situation, where each site uses a different communications package which we are usually unfamiliar with, makes this a very weak link in the system.

4. Giving the students individualized feedback via electronic mail may follow good pedagogical and andragogical principles, but it is very time consuming. While this is tolerable in the present case because one of the instructors has no other teaching responsibilities, under normal teaching loads this would become a very serious problem. The solution may have to be a shift to group feedback via the computer conference (similar to the feedback to student ideas given in a face to face seminar). This would mean that the instructor would comment only once on a group of student responses and would not normally extract individual student responses from the computer conference for individualized comment by electronic mail. Use of electronic mail would be restricted to messages which are necessarily private.

5. The computer conference mode requires considerable extended writing (i.e., paragraphs, essays and reports). That this is not always the case in university courses was noted in a recent survey of grading practices at the University of Alberta (*Folio*, Sept. 11, 1986). Some 30 per cent of the courses surveyed did not use any extended writing at all as a basis for calculating final course grades. One demonstrable result of extended writing in the computer conference course is that many student responses show an excellent understanding of the material, a readiness to advance alternate interpretations and critical assessments of the material provided and thoughtful suggestions for alternative solutions to the matters under study.

Written responses from each student allow the instructor to diagnose the level of student understanding and to identify those elements in the course that are ambiguous or unclear. Standard classroom interaction often does not identify these problems until the final examination is being marked, by which time it is too late to do anything about them. Correspondence courses also offer the advantages described above in that they require written communication from the students. However, they do not share the ability of the computer conference to permit group interaction, allowing for peer review and comment.

In summary, we have found that the use of computer conferencing and electronic mail as a mode of distance education delivery has the potential to be useful. However, care must be taken that its potential value is not overwhelmed by its inherent technical and administrative difficulties.

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LA CREATION DE CONTEXTE DANS UNE SITUATION D'APPRENTISSAGE SPONTANE

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Dans le domaine de l'éducation, nous constatons que la pensee logique rationnelle a peu à peu été élevée au rang d'agent principal de l'apprentissage. Les critères d'objectivité et de mesurabilité ont acquis le statut de grands canons de la connaissance, de la science. Bien que l'on reconnaisse aux autres modes de fonctionnement intellectuel une existence et une certaine importance dans les processus d'apprentissage et de création, leur fonctionnement et les relations qu'ils entretiennent les uns avec les autres demeurent obscurs. On tend toujours à les voir à travers cette dichotomie qui découpe et antagonise la pensée rationnelle , la pensée imaginative, et la pensée perceptive et évaluative.

La compréhension des interactions dynamiques des divers modes de pensée - et en particulier l'imaginaire et le rationnel si souvent antagonisés - ainsi que leurs rôles et leur impact sur l'apprentissage spontané constitue la préoccupation de base de cette recherche.

Il existe quantité de données relatives à ces modes de pensée dans le domaine de l'apprentissage formel ou de la psychologie de l'inconscient, de la créativité et de la résolution de problèmes. Il y en a peu sur l'apprentissage libre et spontané, c'est-à-dire sur l'apprentissage qui n'est ni imposé par une situation structurée de l'extérieur, comme celle d'un problème à résoudre, ni planifié et programmé comme cela se présente dans la situation académique, ni basé sur un besoin d'introspection comme dans l'analyse des rêves .

L'absence de tâche à accomplir, d'objectifs pré-établis ou de préoccupations introspectives qui distingue l'apprentissage spontané de l'apprentissage formel offre un grand avantage pour notre étude: elle amène une spontanéité et une disponibilité de tous les modes de pensée de l'individu qui fonctionnent alors selon la dynamique interactive qui leur est propre.

Le musée est un cadre qui favorise l'observation de l'apprentissage spontané. En effet, le visiteur ordinaire s'y trouve libre d'apprendre ce qu'il veut, sur ce qu'il veut, sans l'interférence d'exigences imposées, il est tout simplement libre d'apprendre ou de ne pas apprendre (Screven, 1969;Gurian,1982.), et ce qu'il recherche généralement au depart est sans prétention et sans ambition précise; il s'attend simplement à y passer un bon moment. (Tressel, 1980;Roussel,1979).

En plus de fournir un cadre propice à l'observation de l'apprentissage spontané, la visite au musée constitue une de ces situations idéales où des objets, des images ou des informations sont extraits de leur contexte originel. C'est donc un terrain tout à fait approprié pour observer l'individu dans un processus de création de contexte.

Nous avons choisi la création de contexte comme point de focalisation de notre observation, parce qu'elle est un élément fondamental de la perception,de l'adaptation, de la découverte et de l'apprentissage. .(Bastick,1982;Lindsay and Norman,1977.) Si nous admettons avec Bateson(1979) que "tout être se définit dans son interaction avec l'environnement, dans la structure d'échange", si l'on tient compte également des connaissances fournies par les études sur la perception, le traitement de l'information et la mémoire (Dember and Warm,1979), nous pouvons nous attendre à ce que le visiteur de musée procède quasi inévitablement à un travail de contextualisation mentale des objets qui lui sont présentés. Car l'histoire des objets ne nous est pas révélée par les objets eux-mêmes, aussi, l'esprit s'empresse-t-il d'opérer une série de connections pour leur conférer une signification. Les tentatives de la personne pour créer ou recréer un contexte qui donnera un sens à l'objet nous permettent alors d'observer les divers types de fonctionnement intellectuels dans leurs interactions.

Nous avons donc tenté de voir comment la personne procède à ce travail de création de contexte. Nous avons recueilli les verbalisations spontanées de 45 adultes durant leur visite d'une exposition de coquillages située dans un musée de sciences naturelles .Cette exposition était caractérisée par l'extrême simplicité de la présentation des coquillages. Chaque vitrine contenait cinq coquillages disposés sur un fond de tissu bleu uni, sans autre information qu'une étiquette indiquant le nom commun, le nom scientifique, la famille d'appartenance et l'aire de distribution géographique de chacun.

En plus des verbalisations spontanées durant la visite, nous avons recueilli les commentaires de chaque visiteur par le biais d'une entrevue où il nous livrait ce qui se passe, selon lui, chez une personne qui fait une telle visite. Suivait une discussion orientée par des questions précises de notre part, et en dernier lieu, une période où le visiteur pouvait poser ses propres questions à un biologiste mis à sa disposition.

Nous avons fait une analyse qualitative de ces données sous les angles a) du matériel fourni par les divers types de fonctionnement, b) de la dyamique interactionnelle des divers types de fonctionnement intellectuels dans la tâche de contextualisation c) des produits obtenus, à savoir le genre de contextes créés et leur évolution, d) de l'importance et du rôle que l'individu accorde au travail de contextualisation en rapport avec son style de fonctionnement, et enfin, e) de la satisfaction ressentie par le visiteur .

Le matériel fourni par les divers modes de pensée.

L'examen minutieux du matériel fourni par les divers modes de pensée a permis d'identifier les moments où l'individu cherche à reconstituer ou à créer un contexte autour de l'objet, les éléments qui contribuent spécifiquement à ce travail et l'influence de ces derniers sur l'orientation du travail de contextualisation.

Ainsi nous pouvons voir des réactions différentes devant le peu d'indices contextuels fournis par les exhibits. Nous avons constaté également que le besoin d'en obtenir était plus ou moins impératif selon les individus.

Ce matériel nous renseigne aussi sur les aspects qui retiennent le plus l'attention du visiteur; aspect physique, écologique, humain, symbolique etc... et qui indiquent déjà l'orientation du travail de contextualisation.

Il nous permet également de voir si l'individu tente de reconstituer un contexte déjà connu et associé spontanément aux objets exposés, ce qui constitue en fait un travail de reproduction, ou s'il s'aventure à élargir sa vision de ces objets par la quête de nouveaux indices lui permettant de créer un contexte encore plus riche que celui qu'il connaissait déjà.

La dynamique interactionnelle des divers modes de pensée

Pour comprendre la dynamique qui s'établit entre les divers modes de pensée, nous avons tenu compte a) de la quantité de matériel fourni par chacun d'eux, de sa cohérence interne et de son influence sur la création du contexte, b) de l'itinéraire que l'individu suit entre les divers fonctionnements, et c) de la valeur et de la place que celui-ci accorde à chacun d'eux dans ses commentaires lors de l'entrevue.

La quantité de matériel fourni selon un mode de pensée déterminé est un indice du niveau de fluidité de celui-ci et du niveau d'aisance de la personne dans ce fonctionnement ou encore de l'importance qu'elle lui accorde spontanément dans une situation de liberté d'apprentissage. Nous avons découvert également qu'il y avait des temps forts, des temps de flottement, des cheminements discontinus, d'autres évolutifs et réguliers, que les modes de pensée pouvaient tenir un rôle de commande, de support ou de point de liaison.

La mise en relation de ces observations par une méthode de sériation qui , tout en ne perdant pas les multiples nuances qui font l'originalité et la richesse de chaque personne permet de trouver leurs points communs, nous a permis de cerner les grands styles d'interaction des modes de pensée dans un travail de contextualisation. Nous les avons considéré sous l'angle de la dominance, de l'exclusion et de la complémentarité.

Les types de contexte et leur évolution

Les produits qui résultent de chacun de ces styles prennent des aspects divers. Les orientations qu'ils prennnent vont de la reproduction objective du milieu originel des objets à la signification symbolique de ces derniers en passant par l'ambiance affective et émotive générale ou par diverses façons de voir les interactions entre les humains, les animaux , les objets et le visiteur lui-même

Rôle et importance du travail de contextualisation

Tous ces contextes peuvent se nourrir de sensations et d'émotions ou conduire à elles, alimenter l'humour ou en émerger, ils peuvent également susciter ou servir de tremplin au questionnement ou encore en être le produit.

Pour certaines personnes le contexte est un moyen d'en apprendre davantage sur l'objet. Pour d'autres, l'intérêt ne réside pas dans l'objet lui-même mais dans les contextes vers lesquels il mène. Les rôles s'inversent; le contexte n'est plus l'outil qui permet de connaître davantage l'objet, c'est plutôt l'objet qui sert à propulser la personne dans une exploration de contextes nouveaux.

L'une ou l'autre position peut conduire à un apprentissage, à une découverte ou à toute autre forme de bénéfice, ou encore elle peut servir le besoin de la personne de se retrouver en terrain connu et maintenir ainsi le statu quo dans ses connaissances.

Qu'est-ce qui détermine un résultat plutôt qu'un autre? Le pouvoir suggestif du contexte habilement conçu par le muséologue ou l'attitude du visiteur et sont aptitude à créer de nouveaux contextes, ou encore son style de fonctionnement intellectuel dans ce travail? Si nous admettons que nos pensées influencent nos perceptions tout autant que ces dernières agissent sur nos pensées, il semble que la réponse ne se trouve dans aucune de ces positions extrêmes. Il nous faut donc de toute évidence nous orienter vers la compréhension des rapports d'interdépendance harmonieux et effectifs de l'individu et du contexte façonné par le muséologue.

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EDUCATION INFORMATION BROKERING AND REFERRAL SERVICES IN ALBERTA: A POTENTIAL RESOURCE FOR ADULT LEARNERS*

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With the large number of adult learners and the extensive list of educational opportunities available to adults on either a full or part-time basis, there is an great need for a system of linking the learner with the educational opportunity. Educational information brokering provides the link between adult learners and the providers of education (Subotich et al., 1986, p. 23). It serves "adult clients' interests as a broker for various educational opportunities" (Heffernan et al., 1976, p.2).

Educational brokering is usually a distinct operation. It is not institution specific. Post secondary institutions provide educational counselling, but not as their main function. In addition, typically they provide information and guidance related to their own programs. Brokering agencies "aim to present adults with the complete range of educational and career alternatives and help them choose those most appropriate to their individual needs." Whereas educational institutions seek to increase their own student bodies, educational brokers are "neutral towards the choices made" (Heffernan et al., 1976, p.2).

The literature points to at least two organizations in Canada involved primarily in educational brokering. The Women's Resource Centre in Vancouver started on the third floor of the Vancouver Public Library as a community place for women "to think about their lives." By 1981, it had evolved into an educational brokering service, providing life-planning annually for about 3,600 women, many of who were disadvantaged. The services ranged "from the provision of information, referrals, and resource materials to peer counselling, group programs and individual advocacy "(Fournier, 1982).

In 1984 in the Metropolitan Toronto area,the Workers' Educational Association began developing and testing educational brokering (Subotich et al., 1986). The organization's principal aim was to provide a "single unaffiliated resource centre" of educational opportunities for adult learners. A secondary goal was client advocacy, including needs analysis. In 1987 the Workers' Educational Association undertook a national survey of educational brokering funded by the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission.

This paper describes the findings of a survey conducted to examine and describe the nature of adult education information brokering and referral activities in the Province of Alberta. We discovered that it was difficult to make a definitive statement regarding educational brokering in the province. This was partly due to the diverse and entangled character of postsecondary education, the wide variety of potential adult clientele who may require educational services, compounded by the complexity of the very notion of education information brokering and referral. In the main, we were unable to find organizations whose main purpose is adult education information brokering and referral. We learned that educational brokering services in Alberta generally exist as part of organizations providing direct training or employment placement services. We found that most frequently, information and referral services are secondary to other services.

Method

From a review of literature about educational brokering, a working definition was developed to guide the Alberta survey. Brokering is more conventionally understood to relate to program delivery. Through this paper, we wish to enhance the general brokering concept. We find the term education information brokering and referral is more descriptive of the activity we studied. The definition is as follows:

> Information brokering and referral is understood as an activity or service which makes available comprehensive education information, planning and guidance, to adults and to the community. Information/referral brokering services may include, but are not limited to the following education and

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* This paper is based on a study of educational brokering activities in Alberta funded by the Workers' Educational Association. Appreciation is expressed to Brian McNish and Virginia Tautchin, graduate students at the University of Alberta, who assisted in the study.

career-related activities: Client need identification, information dissemination, counselling, referral, testing, tutoring, and/or advocacy or lobbying on behalf of potential learners. The services provided by brokering agencies usually are not institution-specific, but rather, make available to the client, the array of educational opportunities available. Education information and referral brokering activities are distinct from, but not unrelated to employment placement services.

It was recognized that many of the postsecondary institutions and school board continuing education divisions within the province, because of their high community profiles, play and important general counselling, information distribution and referral role for Alberta adults. However, because these roles generally benefited the specific institutions themselves, this study intentionally focused on agencies other than these.

A number of questions guided the investigation: 1) What brokering agencies are currently active in the province? 2) What efforts do these brokering agencies make to "reach out" to disadvantaged adults in the community? 3) What unserved needs for brokering services currently exist in the province? 4) What identifiable groups of adults can benefit most from information brokering and referral services? 5) In what locations or settings might brokering services be most effective?

The primary source of preliminary information for the study was the Alberta Government provincial registry of community resources, *The Social Services Inventory*. This is a province-wide computer-based directory of community service agencies. A special listing of the data base -- limited to agencies which might be involved in information brokering and referral -- was generated. This listing approximated 800 pages and included about 1000 agencies categorized as providing some level of education and/or career guidance.

The listing was examined systematically, eliminating those agencies which obviously did not fall within the terms of the working definition of information and referral brokering. As a result of this "culling" process, the inventory listing was reduced to approximately 200 offices in 83 communities across the province. From this reduced listing, a province-wide telephone survey of selected communities and agencies was conducted. The telephone contact had two primary intents. The first was to verify, clarify, and deepened our understanding of the nature of the agencies. The second was to collect information pertaining directly to the guiding questions of the study. We were interested in finding out about: potential clients needing information and referral services, agency outreach activities, other information and referral agencies not listed in the provincial inventory, and suggestions about potential changes to public policy.These contacts also resulted in some agencies being deleted from the listing.

Findings

Our survey should not be understood as complete; rather, it is representative. A more definitive enquiry would require a study of more significant proportions. The agencies identified included federal and provincial government agencies, municipal government agencies and non government agencies. They served the general public as well as special-needs or disadvantaged clients. Most served adults while a few served both adults and children. The federal and provincial government agencies often operated in more than one community. Although some operated in rural communities, most were limited to cities and larger towns. None of the organizations listed adult education information brokering and referral as primary functions.

Government Information and Referral Agencies. Education information brokering and referral in Alberta might usefully be characterized as being dominated by services and funding from three major government sources representing two levels of government, federal and provincial. The federal government has a strong presence throughout the province, directly through the operation of 33 Canada Employment Centres, and indirectly by way of project funding of non-government agencies through the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission. Two provincial departments, Alberta Social Services and Alberta Career Development and Employment, also are very influential in providing information and referral services. Educational brokering is also supported by the operations of another provincial government department, Alberta Advanced Education.

In addition to the income support programs, the Canada Employment Centres provide testing, counselling, and support for individuals seeking skill training and basic educational upgrading in postsecondary institutions or on the job. Special counselling services are provided to handicapped and employment-disadvantaged clients. The Centres also act as approving and supervising agents for many of the federal government's employment-related grant programs, many utilized by non-government agencies involved in educational brokering.

Alberta Social Services provides client service coordinators and rehabilitation consultants to work with the career and education needs of disadvantaged adults. Operating throughout the province, these government employees provide educational and career training program support, client funding and educational information to mentally, physically and socially disadvantaged adults. Non-government agencies contacted as part of the study, reported close working relationships with these regional liaison personnel. Alberta Social Services also maintains the *Social Services Inventory* and provides funding to non-government agencies and disadvantaged individuals served by many of the agencies listed in this inventory.

In terms of more general public needs, Alberta Career Development and Employment plays a major role in providing educational information and referral to adults in three ways: the fifteen Alberta Career Development Centres throughout the province; a province-wide, toll-free Career Information Hotline; and funded projects. While the Career Development Centres may not be well known by the general public, they are well known and serve as an important resource for other information and referral agencies. The Centres provide individual and group counselling, display and distribute detailed occupational and educational program information,and make referrals to institutions or agencies offering educational programs or placement services. They also serve as an access point for individuals seeking provincial financial assistance for training or furthering their education.

The Department of Advanced Education is responsible for the province's postsecondary educational institutions as well as the less-formally structured, community-based further education activities. The department sustains the operation of two types of relatively unique province-wide program-brokering operations, the 85 community-based Further Education Councils and five regional Consortia. They are designed to deliver non-credit, general interest, and some credit programs to the province's adult population. They collaborate with each other as well as the more structured provincial postsecondary institutions. Also, as a result of the programming activities of these regional and community operations, a loose network of educational information and brokering referral services exists throughout the province. For the most part, these activities are peripheral to program brokering activities, but the community presence of these agencies makes them natural information sources.

Non-Government, Non-Profit Agencies. To a great degree, education information and referral in the central and southern parts of the province appear to depend upon the government services outlined above. As one moves into the areas of the province north of Edmonton, however, there is a tendency toward a greater diversity of agencies. The diversity takes the form of more non-government services, serving particularly the native population.

Many of the native bands and regional councils employ educational and career counselors who provide members with the full range of education information and referral services. Friendship Centres, generally located in northern rural communities, operate as a social and cultural bridge between native communities and their adjacent non-native communities. Some of these also employ referral counselors. Another agency, the Native Outreach Association of Alberta, has six offices throughout the province and serves primarily as an employment agency although it also provides educational brokering services as well.

Other agencies, existing primarily in the larger cities of the province, are those serving physically and mentally disadvantaged adults. In such agencies, education information brokering and referral is secondary to a primary training function. Most agencies sustain close relationships with school boards and postsecondary institutions as well as government agencies. Funding is generally from per person grants, but also may be based on donations or private fund-raising and money-making projects. Examples of these agencies are the Vocational and Rehabilitation Research Institute of Calgary, which is associated with the University of Calgary for research purposes, and Medicine Hat Rehabilitation Society, which is one of the few agencies serving handicapped adults in a smaller Alberta city.

A number of agencies provide support for the social, educational and economic integration of immigrants and refugees. These agencies are often based in existing ethnic communities (i.e., the Chinese Community Services Centre in Edmonton); others are church-based (i.e., Catholic Immigration Society in Calgary); and some serve special need groups, such as women (i.e., Changing Together: A Centre for Immigrant Women in Edmonton). For the most part, these agencies appear to depend heavily upon government financial support.

Few agencies did not rely on government funding. The exception was LDS Employment Services, which although it provides employment and educational counseling to the general public, is funded totally by the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. No agencies charged fees for education information brokering and referral services.

Profit-Making Information and Referral Agencies. Some proprietary agencies are in very early development of providing information and referral services. An example of of such an agency is Educational Consultants of Canada Inc., of Edmonton. Such proprietary agencies often have an association with contract consultants engaged in offering training or personal development programs to clients.

In summary, adult education information brokering and referral in the province of Alberta appears to be dominated by government involvement. Probably the primary educational brokers in the province are departments of either the federal or provincial governments. Government has less involvement at a second level, that of the government-mandated, locally-administered Further Education Councils and Consortia. A third category of involvement is in non-government agencies, which rely on government as their main source of funding.

Observations and Conclusions

Location or Setting. Existing information brokering and referral services appear to be relatively decentralized within the Alberta context. In particular, the Alberta Career Development Centres and the Canada Employment Centres operate in most of the cities, and some larger towns, across the province. However, in terms of their presence in more rural settings, the Further Education Councils and Consortia probably offer the greatest potential for enhancing the access of Alberta adults to educational information or referral services. Greater access to educational brokering would require a somewhat broader mandate for these agencies, or at least a change in perception as to the importance of information brokering and referral activities relative to the brokering of programs.

Regardless of the potential for the future, in our estimation, the above government agencies likely represent the clearest examples of what might be referred to as "pure types" of educational information brokering and referral services, as defined at the outset of our study. In the Alberta, context, such agencies are widely distributed and apparently well used.

In the non-government sector, a significant number of the educational brokering services are based in the larger communities, particularly Edmonton and Calgary. Many communities support specific non-government agencies, providing information and referral services for special-need groups. However, from a general province-wide perspective, the education information and referral services provided by such agencies appears to be uneven.

The most common of these agencies appear to be those locally-initiated, government-assisted, organizations offering direct training for employment options, life skills and housing services to the mentally and physically handicapped. There is little evidence that these agencies make a systematic effort to gather and disseminate educational information beyond the local setting.

To invoke a radio metaphor for the provision of educational information, most non-government agencies, by their very nature and mandate, appear to be involved in "narrowcasting" rather than "broadcasting." Frequently, they have a very specific clientele and a specific local mandate. These agencies appear to be busy coping with emergent needs of a well-defined existing clientele, rather than reaching out to a broader group.

Non-government information and referral services appear to be somewhat more evident in smaller communities in the northern areas of the province than in the central and southern areas. This greater presence is related to serving the needs of native peoples. Although these services are also available in the southern half of the province, clearly the emphasis is on areas around and north of Edmonton.

The locations of government and non-government agencies indicates that Alberta has in place an extensive network of information and referral services. This assessment would seem to be justified particularly when considering the distribution of postsecondary institutions across the province, bearing in mind that they too provide information and referral services. However, many of these agencies have "institution-like" characteristics, which may make them intimidating to someone not comfortable dealing with such agencies. On the other hand, these same characteristics also make the agencies visible.

In the case of all the services outlined in this report, however, a more detailed investigation would be required to determine actual effectiveness. Such an undertaking also ought to attempt to more clearly identify Alberta adults with educational needs, particularly the needs of those who are "on the margins." Marginality in the Alberta setting could relate to a number of factors: geographic, ethnic, social, economic and educational.

Unserved Clients. Frankly, as a direct result of this investigation, we gained little additional sense of identifiable groups of adult Albertans who are not currently being served by the activities of any or all of the agencies identified by the study. Notwithstanding this, recent media reports dealing with, for example, levels of literacy among Canadians are alone sufficient to point to a requirement for a more detailed understanding of the educational needs of adults in the province. One could also speculate about the un-met educational needs of individuals who fall into other broad categories of our society's disadvantaged, but who, for one reason or another, are not "visible" against the ground of the general population. Examples of these might be: under-educated adults who were never diagnosed as having learning disabilities; people who, because of changing technology or economic adjustment, lack employable skills; the working poor; women wishing to enter paid employment after a time away.

It isn't clear that seeking out marginalized adults to provide them with educational information or access to referral services beyond that which is currently available will solve their difficulties. On the face of it, a certain missionary zeal on the part of educators may seem to be harmless enough, but it may be that some adults are invisible because they choose to be.

Complexity of Postsecondary Education Sector. In attempting to discover where and how one might gain access to educational information or referral services, we developed some empathy for what it must be like for an uninitiated education seeker to attempt to make sense of, or develop a mental image of, the confusing array of educational services available. Postsecondary learning opportunities for Alberta adults, whether formal, non-formal, informal, or otherwise, may be characterized as being less like a "system" than they are like a "tangle."

The potential student, who already has a reasonable idea of his/her educational and career goal, who has a fairly conventional career option, and who is seeking this goal through a well-travelled route, may be well served by the agencies and programs identified in this study. On the other hand, the individual who has not been a continuing user of educational services, or who is "casting about," may have to depend upon his/her own exploratory and conceptual skills, sustained personal effort,or trust in serendipity.

In our information age, an understanding of the vast array of interlocking and yet mutually-exclusive educational opportunities and programs and their relationship to an individual's potential career development, clearly represents a major element in being functionally literate. Yet much of what may currently be provided in terms of information and referral services -- a pamphlet here, a program description there -- may make the erroneous assumption that one is dealing with a level of "literacy" about how all the educational agencies, programs and courses relate.

If our perceptions in this regard are accurate, this very situation seems to suggest that educational providers and those that make available information about educational opportunities need to understand that the postsecondary "system" does not have a self-evident rationality. At times it is extremely difficult, even for those of us who work within the field, to sustain a comprehensive sense of the gigantic jigsaw puzzle commonly referred to as the postsecondary "system." Our own efforts in this investigation suggest that one needs to be very knowledgeable just to ask the right questions,or very patient. We wonder what it must be like for the uninitiated.

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ON CAMPUS: A PROGRAM AT UNIVERSITY FOR ADULTS WITH SEVERE MENTAL DISABILITIES

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On Campus Students

Betty is 22 years old and stands about four feet tall. Betty is effervescent. With assistance, she has identified a number of personal strengths: good grooming, social and safety skills. Betty is empathetic. She reads, uses the Edmonton Transit System without assistance, tells time, keeps track of appointments, and makes choices.

Betty lives with her parents and has a boyfriend. She is interested in computers, television, board games, word-search games, swimming, music, dating, and she collects bells. Betty's personal future dreams and goals include one day having an apartment with a roommate and an office job. Betty's past work experiences include baby sitting and working at a bottle depot.

Betty has a mental handicap; as a consequence, she still needs to develop adult basic living skills for independent living. For example, she requires improved skills relating to laundry, diet, menu planning, grocery shopping, money management, and leisure fulfillment. She also needs to learn about the rights and responsibilities of other people in her life, and to be discrete about family matters.

Terry, like Betty, is also 22 years old. Terry is blind, completely wheelchair dependent, and mentally handicapped. Terry resides in an institution and travels using the Edmonton Disabled Adult Transportation System (DATS). While away from his residence, Terry requires the continuous services of a personal care attendant for eating and toileting.

Terry cannot speak. He cannot articulate his personal dreams or, for that matter, make any complex statement about his situation. He can, however, express basic feelings, such as pleasure, frustration, and discomfort. Those who know Terry suggest that his strengths lie in being both personable and stubborn. His interest is stimulated by new environments, people, music, swimming, and being read to.

In educational and social terms, Terry's needs relate to expanding his world beyond the institution in which he lives. Specifically he would be helped by being able to improve his abilities to engage in formal communication and establishing some eating independence. His opportunities for leisure activities need to be enhanced.

Kathleen is 21 years old. Until very recently she was living with her parents, but she now lives with a roommate who also has a mental handicap. Kathleen has poor balance and hand tremors; she uses walking canes to move about, but is also a track competitor in the Special Olympics. Aside from her athletic interest, she also enjoys cooking, sign language, shopping, computers, movies, radio, television, and new friends -- especially men.

One of Kathleen's strengths is that she is very careful and, hence, is able to live on her own. She has the ability to do household chores and some cooking. She banks independently and travels on the Edmonton Transit System without assistance. She can read and write and doesn't hesitate to speak her own mind.

Kathleen's personal future dreams include: a job which uses sign language skills, learning to drive, learning to play an instrument, making new friends and finding a boyfriend. Her immediate educational needs relate to building her money management skills and ability to shop for clothes. She needs to increase her independent living skills, reading and sign language skills, and to have opportunities to practice communicating. Kathleen needs to improve her manners and her ability to accept constructive criticism. She wants to interact with her peers and desires a close friend.

The Context

Do young adults such as these, with severe mental disabilities, belong as students in a university setting? Does the presence of such students negate the concept of a university, as an institution which fosters a high level of intellectual development?

During the past year, as part of the "On Campus Program," eleven students (ages 20-32) with severe mental disabilities have been on the University of Alberta campus. Kathleen, Terry and Betty are representative of their other eight student colleagues (including two others who have physical handicaps which confine them to wheelchairs). But Betty, Kathleen and Terry are not representative of conventional University of Alberta students. The very obvious presence of these eleven young adults on campus may cause us, as educators and members of the community at large, to reflect upon the traditional views we hold about the nature of the university setting, its role, and its clientele.

After attaining high school-leaving age, young Alberta adults with severe mental disabilities often find themselves very limited in their educational options. Many families of students with mental disabilities making this transition, are not satisfied with systemic limitations which they feel currently turn a personal disability into an adult education handicap. Where educational options do exist for young adults, entry is often only available to those who are able to meet minimum academic admission criteria in existing postsecondary institution transitional programs; or entry is limited to other direct vocational training programs designed to facilitate an immediate transition to a sheltered or government-supported employment opportunity.

Jurisdictional complexities among four Alberta government departments -- Alberta Education, Alberta Advanced Education, Alberta Social Services and Alberta Employment and Career Development -- have opened a yawning educational crevasse for this segment of Alberta's population of young adults. The On Campus Program at the University of Alberta is an adult education innovation which has emerged as a delicate bridge across this jurisdictional abyss.

The Program

Except for those activities directly related to the generation of this report, the writers have no continuing association with the On Campus Program. As part of the data collection process, however, one of the writers spent several months documenting the Program as a collaborator/observer.

On Campus is different from many other educational programs for people with mental and physical handicaps in that it does not have a direct vocational outcome as its primary objective. The On Campus Program is described by its founders as an adult developmental education program. The Program intends to achieve a level of social and educational integration of young adults with severe mental disabilities, into the milieu of the university community. The On Campus Program works toward assisting the students in a transition to the world of responsible adulthood.

On Campus is currently operated under the sponsorship of the Gateway Association for the Mentally Handicapped, with funding from Alberta Social Services. The Gateway Association is an Edmonton-based, non-profit organization, established by parents of handicapped youngsters. The Association is both an advocacy and an information and referral agency. In the case of the On Campus Program, the Gateway Association also provides a framework for funding and the provision of administrative services, such as accounting and payroll.

The On Campus Program itself receives operating direction from a 16-member volunteer board. This board acts on behalf of the Gateway Association Executive Committee. The day-to-day operation of the Program is, however, the responsibility of a paid coordinator. The Coordinator and her staff operate the program from a 9'x12' donated office, in the Education Building of the University of Alberta.

The Coordinator is a college graduate rehabilitation practitioner. Duties of the Coordinator are extensive and include: liaison with the volunteer board and the Gateway Association, liaison with Alberta Social Services (funding & evaluation), program planning and organization, documentation, timetabling staff and students, hiring staff, seeking volunteer student peers, seeking facilities, maintaining contact with students' support groups, part-time student instruction and/or personal contact, part-time feeding and toileting, and off-hour contact with students, parents and support groups.

In addition to the Coordinator, the On Campus Program employs seven other staff members -- three full-time and four part-time. One part-time employee and the three full-time personnel are Instructors. One full-time instructor holds a baccalaureate degree in adaptive physical education, the other two full-time instructors are college graduates, one as a rehabilitation practitioner and the other in therapeutic leisure and recreation. The part-time instructor is a 4th-year University of Alberta student, studying in the field of recreation and leisure.

The instructional content area responsibilities of these teaching personnel include: reading, personal care and grooming, banking, shopping, library use, computer use, weight workouts, exercise routines, swimming and pool therapy. The instructors are also intended to act as appropriate role models for the students.

The remaining three part-time On Campus employees are Personal Care Attendants. All are currently attending the University of Alberta as students. The personal care attendants are responsible for toileting and feeding On Campus students who have physical disabilities which necessitate such services. Of the three personal care attendants, one is a college graduate rehabilitation practitioner, another holds a baccalaureate degree in theology.

The operation of the On Campus Program is guided by a vision intent upon developing a "Support Circle" around each of the On Campus students. This notion of Support Circle was developed by Judith Snow and Marsha Forest of York University, Toronto. It calls for creating and sustaining an "organic" network of "real" relationships around each individual. This network is proposed to move beyond paid service professionals, to include a web of friends, lovers, relatives, co-workers, and peers.

These intentions were operationalized in the On Campus Program by recruiting the involvement of conventional university students, to befriend, guide, and/or to tutor the On Campus students. During the fall 1987 term, the On Campus Program operated with 36 part-time volunteer student peers. The winter 1988 term, saw 19 part-time volunteer student peers, eleven of whom continued from the previous fall. These student peers were recruited by the Program Coordinator from the greater university community, and although some volunteers were older than the On Campus students, an effort is made to encourage volunteers who are age-cohort peers. A number of the volunteers engaged with the On Campus students for course credit, for example, as practicum assignments in special education courses. Others reported a variety of motives, including: humanitarian interests, the desire for practical experience, or an interest in building their personal resumes.

Each On Campus student has a weekly timetable, scheduling his/her activities. On average during the fall term, the volunteers spent just under two hours a week with their On Campus colleagues. Some were in contact as often as five hours a week; but the most common scheduled contact time was one hour. A single scheduled, weekly meeting was the norm.

Once again, Terry, Betty and Kathleen are representative of the On Campus student experiences with peer volunteers. Kathleen was mentored by seven volunteers during the fall term. Two volunteers worked with Terry; Betty had the companionship of five. The peer volunteers took Terry for walks, read to him, and played music for him. Kathleen and Betty, with their volunteers, worked on activities such as swimming, weights, reading skills, and other educational interests specific to each of them. Some peer volunteers engaged socially with Kathleen and Betty, including lunch, coffee and other activities. Usually, each volunteer was assigned to a single student and took responsibility for only one type of activity with that student. Some On Campus students attend regular university credit courses. These are special arrangements and usually involve the company of a peer volunteer, with the permission of the University faculty member responsible for the course.

The Program organizers hope that these activities and liaisons will result in the On Campus students -- not unlike conventional university students -- becoming socially integrated with their age-cohort peers. It is hoped that the On Campus students will develop lasting friendships, beyond the scheduled volunteer activities.

Volunteer Perceptions

A number of the volunteers were asked to share their perceptions about the effects of the On Campus Program as it related to three matters. First, they were asked to comment -- based on their volunteer experience -- on the benefits of the Program to the On Campus students. The On Campus students were seen to be excited and happy. A visible increase in self-confidence and a new sense of independence were often mentioned. The students apparently became "more comfortable around people." The volunteers suggested that the students learned to communicate at a more sophisticated level. The development of socially appropriate social behavior was also recognized as an important accomplishment; one male student, for example, was learning to overcome his "pouting and sissyness." A female student was learning not to "ogle" men. Both these behaviors, if uncorrected, might stand in the way of sustained social contact as one makes a transition to the world of adults. One of the more interesting benefits of the Program for On Campus students was an expanded time horizon, the development of a personal time agenda through the timetable process.

The volunteers were also asked to comment upon the reactions of other members of the university community, to the On Campus students. The reported reactions ranged from being ignored, through curiosity, to being surprised. The overwhelming response from conventional students was reported to have been staring: "odd looks, curious looks, shocked looks." Laughter and some negative comments on the part of conventional students were also reported. The On Campus students spent most of their time in the Education building; some volunteers suggested that the staring was less apparent within that setting. On occasion, conventional students were reportedly "irritated" by the "screaming" communication noises of some of the wheelchair students. One or two volunteers indicated that overt hostility --"sneering" -- was displayed by some students and faculty members. Some members of the university community expressed concern that valuable space was being "taken" by On Campus students.

Finally, the volunteers were asked to comment on how having contact with the On Campus students had affected them. The most frequent response was that they began with feelings of frustration and then "learned patience." A number indicated that they had come to know these individuals as people rather than as "problems" or as "different." Some came to understand that the On Campus students were "more capable than I thought," or "that people often function at a much higher level than we are led to believe." One or two mentioned that they had learned to be "humble." It appears that the On Campus Program has had some effect on almost everyone it has touched.

The On Campus Program also faced its share of difficulties. For example, not all volunteer/student contacts were positive. Just as in any human situation, personality conflicts did arise. Observations suggest that the "educational content" of some tutoring sessions may require closer monitoring. It seems clear that the program does not serve all On Campus students equally well. In particular, the situation of the students with multiple physical handicaps as well as mental handicaps needs to be monitored much more closely. The wide span of control demanded of the Coordinator leads to organizational difficulties and prevents adequate monitoring of volunteer activities. The physical facilities available to the Program in terms of feeding space, toileting space, office space, meeting space, etc. are primitive at best. These conditions would be unacceptable under any other educational circumstance and they ought to be considered unacceptable for the On Campus students.

Summary

This paper provides an image of the individuals the On Campus Program is serving and attempts to convey some sense of the personal experiences of some of those involved. We sketched the socio-political context from which the On Campus Program emerged and outlined the theoretical conceptualizations and practical considerations which have shaped the program's organization and operation. After a year of operation, the benefits achieved by the On Campus Program experiment in postsecondary education suggest it is worth continuing.

However, a major issue for those guiding the On Campus Program is how to establish such a program as a continuing part of a university setting, and how to ensure that the program has adequate resources to overcome some of the current operating difficulties. As mentioned, Alberta Social Services currently provides direct funding for the program, but from a public policy point of view, Social Services does not have an education mandate. Alberta Advanced Education has a mandate to support postsecondary education, but apparently students such as those being served by the current On Campus Program, fall outside its conventional program areas. University policy makers, so far as the On Campus Program is concerned, appear presently to be cast in the role of unwitting wet nurse. The On Campus Program experiment likely faces a precarious long-term future.

The very fact of the existence of the University of Alberta On Campus Program increases our awareness of this jurisdictional problem and its human and educational consequences. The presence of of students such as Betty, Kathleen and Terry on campus, and their successes raise important public policy and adult education questions: What range of postsecondary education opportunities ought to be available to individuals with mental disabilities? Which government department(s) should embrace responsibility for the postsecondary education of Alberta adults with severe mental disabilities? Is the University environment enhanced or threatened by the presence of students with severe mental handicaps?

THE POLITICS OF EVALUATION STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION

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Introduction

Do the evaluation processes most popular in adult education have the potential to influence the policy making processes which bear on adult education? This question provides the focus for this paper.

The question is studied through some examination of the work of Janet Finch (1984) and Colin Griffin (1987) regarding the impact of education on public policy. Their arguments are examined through comparing the potential for evaluation to produce useful information with the need for information for public policy making. Finch suggests two rationales for education programs: "individual benefit" and "social benefit". Through examination of a number of proposals and resulting legislation pertaining to adult education in Great Britain, she makes the case that a proposal based on an individual benefit rationale stands very little chance of competing for public resources. Finch says because education has to make sense to society, considerations which derive from collective interests seem to exercise the more compelling pressures.

Griffin borrows from the ideas of Finch to point out how theories of adult education are highly individualistic but the social policy discourse of adult education is much more one of social engineering. Like Finch, Griffin says "...change is generated in the economy of society, and that adult education is a strategy for managing it...". Griffin questions whether adult education knowledge, that is the professional organization of adult education, is capable of addressing the social benefit rationale. It is the question of impact on public policy that we bring to the examination of the evaluations in adult education.

The Study...

The potential for evaluations in adult education to have impact on the policy process can be examined through a couple of steps. Firstly we present a summary of the evaluation processes in adult education from recent literature. Secondly we present what the literature cites as necessary for evaluation studies to address the policy-making process. The separation of adult education evaluation from the informing policy of processes is noted throughout this discussion. A separation of adult education activity from the policy process is demonstrated using the Adult Occupational Training Act in Canada as a case study.

The literature on evaluation in adult education indicates that the foci of evaluations are on particular programs and how well these programs serve individual needs. Evaluation is seen within the practice of adult education; it is a means to account for a program, improve a program, or plan future programs. Brookfield (1985) in noting the very context-specific nature of evaluation in adult education points out how the criteria for evaluation often reflect individual preferences. The criteria could be based on "the sponsoring agency's mission, the institutional ethos as perceived by the educator, the financial climate of the time and the programmer's personal philosophy". Evaluation models most commonly used by adult educators support education theories and practices that stress individual learner need.

Brookfield (1982) and Sewell and Santaga (1986) review the evaluation models most commonly used in adult education. Brookfield reminds adult educators of their long-held belief in the measurement of behavioural objectives and he reviews adult education's use of goal-free evaluation, the CIPP model, Kirkpatrick's hierarchy, and naturalistic evaluation. Sewell and Santaga report the most commonly used models are the CIPP evaluation model, discrepancy evaluation, responsive evaluation and the judicial evaluation model. From the two reports we highlight characteristics of commonly used methods.

One popular method is the use of Stufflebeam's CIPP Evaluation Model which has four basic components: context, input, process and product. It is seen as a move away from the traditional evaluation emphasis on goals and objectives. The context evaluation studies how well the program fits into the larger system. The input evaluation measures the amount of effort expended to meet the program's goals. The process evaluation focuses on the design of the program and the procedural activities. Product evaluation measures essentially the outcomes. Despite this model's attempt to study the context, the focus is still mainly the program.

Another popular (non context) method is the goal free approach advanced by Scriven. This model acknowledges the significance of the unplanned results of education. Brookfield (1985) defends this approach saying "Since many adult learners frequently claim the accidental, unofficial aspects of their participation in a program to be the most important, ...the goal free approach has great relevance for adult education."

Responsive evaluation, promoted by Stake, assumes that an evaluation is most useful if it is responsive to the interests and needs of the individuals most affected by the program's existence. In other words, it is the perceptions of those individuals who have a vested interest in the program, which determine what questions will be formulated and how the evaluation will proceed.

Qualitative and naturalistic evaluation techniques are used as a means to promote the perspective of the learner, a perspective of importance to adult education. Brookfield describes every adult education program as "a unique psycho-social drama". This raises the question, is it not time for evaluators of adult education programs to understand the political context in which they exist? Is there a way to tell the story so that it is an important part of a whole, not so unique it can be easily dismissed? It must be difficult for policy makers to accomodate hundreds of "unique psycho-social dramas". The point to be discussed in more detail later from a study by Dupre et al. (1973) of federal provincial relations in adult education is that the economists, essentially the federal voice for adult education, had one master position which they used consistently against the many different arguments from the educationists. They succeeded by using commonality.

There is a need for evaluation studies, that, while taking into account the perspective of the learner, also ensure that the results of the evaluation studies speak to the information needs of policy makers. Adult education programs are usually dependent on broader policies. Adult educators find themselves working within the rules of the programs, rules created by another level of administration which they as adult educators could not influence. What is the potential to make the information from evaluations more likely to influence policy makers?

Rogers et al. (1981) describe information needs for policy makers. In their discussion on government management and evaluation needs, government management is described as "the policy and program decisions which determine the allocation of resources among the various programs within broad areas of policy - economic, social, etc." "Programs" are described as being managed and delivered to Canadians. The authors discuss the evaluation function necessary for each management procedure of the government. Government managers require information such as "the rationale of the program, its impact on the public and its cost-effectiveness as compared with alternative means of program delivery...".

Weiss (1984) in a discussion of utilization of evaluation elaborates on eight suggestions for increasing the likelihood of the use of evaluations. Her suggestions include: plan the study with the users in mind; concentrate on conditions that can be altered; disseminate the results widely; fit results into the larger picture. These are all suggestions that would probably lead not only to "use" but to influence on desired changes and improvement. Weiss reminds us that evaluation results are only one input into complex bargaining around the interests and ideologies involved in social programs.

Chelimsky (1987) takes the questions of utilization one step further and asks, what is the possibility for adult educators using their evaluation studies to have a say in the political and economic sphere that influences the activity level of adult education? Is adult education only reacting to and serving the policy makers? Or is there the potential to influence the policy process with the information gathered in the evaluation of programs? Chelimsky argues that evaluation, "providing high-quality information to decision makers" will automatically influence political process...". Chelimsky claims the reasons evaluators have not been sufficiently integrated into the work of politics is that they had "little understanding of the political domain with which they have had to interact" and they continue to "restrict evaluation's application to social issues only". She suggests evaluation must broaden its focus to work in all policy areas "social or not".

We have attempted to illustrate that a gap exists between the information that is provided by evaluations in adult education and the information that is needed from evaluations in order that it would inform the policy making process. Evaluations that focus on the perspective of the learner seem to result in an apparent disregard for the social and political context that shape the programs being evaluated. Patton (1986) advises: "To be innocent of the political nature of evaluation is to become a pawn in someone else's game, wittingly or unwittingly - or perhaps more commonly, to miss the game all together".

A Case Study

Much of what has been discussed can be found in the creation and implementation of the Adult Occupation Training Act (AOTA) in 1967. This federal legislation is considered by many to be the most significant for adult education in Canada. The story of the impact of this legislation is complex. We draw from that complexity only one aspect. This aspect demonstrates the separation of the policy process from adult education activity.

The creation of AOTA is set within the overlapping of traditional jurisdictions: the federal government has responsibility for economic matters and the provinces have responsibility for education. The federal government explained its new involvement in adult training as contributing to "economic growth and full employment". However, with the implementation of adult occupational training, a federal-provincial conflict arose. The conflict seemed to be at several levels. The federal government tied selection, counselling, purchasing seats, and placement for training to the requirements of the economy. They sought to mould training into a tool of economic policy.

Questions raised by the educationists in the provinces include: if education is tied to the economy, when the economy slumps, is education supposed to slump too? and, is economics alone an adequate tool to do the job? The analysis of Dupre et al. is one of the federal government as buyer and provincial government as seller. The study questions whether the federal government really wanted any comment and criticism. The philosophy of the program seemed not to be up for discussion. It appears provinces were only given the operating rules.

The federal government saw as the challenge the building of programs that contributed to the "promotion of growth". The challenge was to get the federal design translated into operational reality. The very "building of programs" is the kind of strategy that should be challenged from the program evaluation point of view. What (whose information) is taken into account in such "building of programs"?

Another question is, who, buyer or seller, should determine the training product? The buyer's intentions were clear. The federal government wished to 1) identify skills required to meet occupational demand, 2) select clients who fit for the occupations and 3) purchase training that would prepare the individuals for a specific occupation. Dupre et al. conlcude clearly that it is the buyer's organizational framework that provides the rules. The provinces were required not only to provide the training, they were required to do so under very specific criteria.

Dupre et al. point out that a critical factor in the development of programs became "the source and nature of the information system upon which the development...is based." Their juxtaposition of what they call two types of intelligence in rivalry reveals the essence of the problem. The federal economists designed a system based on a blend of intelligence and quantitiative data, the educationists in the provinces relied almost entirely upon the kind of intelligence that stems from personal contact and judgment. Neither party would admit to the validity of the other's information. Dupre et al. add that each side accused the other of being "incapable of properly assessing the need for training". The clash of levels is demonstrated by Dupre et al. writing: "The jargon of economists wishing to train in accordance with a strict set of economic priorities clashed with the vocabulary of educationists desiring to train each individual to his maximum potential".

Conclusion

An argument has been presented pointing out the need for information to influence policy making which affects adult education. We demonstrated that information from evaluations in adult education focusing on the learner's perspective, does not adequately influence the policy process. We have identified the potential to rethink the evaluation process in adult education so that it includes matters that impact on adult education programs. The very existence of a program could be up for evaluation-based debate.

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RESEARCH INTO ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND

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1.Introduction

Scotland is a country of 5 million population, compared with its larger neighbour, England, which has a population of 46 million. Although an integral part of the U.K. since 1707, Scotland has a separate legal, education and church system and attitudes towards its larger southern neighbour probably share some similarities with those of Canada to the U.S.A. For example, some 85% of Scots favour a greater degree of political devolution and the last General Election saw Scotland moving sharply against the U.K. trend with a reduction in the number of Conservative M.P's in Scotland from 21 to 10 out of a total of 72 M.P's.

Scotland differs from England in other ways. Its population contains a larger proportion of manual workers and a higher proportion of Scots live in rented local authority housing compared to England where privately owned housing is the norm. With the decline of traditional industries such as coal-mining, iron and steel manufacture, ship building, heavy engineering and textiles, unemployment rates are above those of the more favoured English regions. On the other hand, inward investment by North American, Japanese and European firms has led to a concentration of "hi-tech" industries such as electronics in Edinburgh, Fife and parts of the west of Scotland.

11.The Education System in Scotland - Adult and Continuing Education.

Education, like the law and the church, has developed separately in Scotland. Today, with the exception of the universities, education in Scotland at a national level is the responsibility of the twelve Regional and Island Education Authorities.

Young Scots have traditionally enjoyed greater opportunities to proceed to higher education in Scotland than the same age group in the rest of the United Kingdom. There are more university places per head of the Scottish population and there has been a longer tradition of school education in Scotland coupled with relatively easy access to the Scottish universities.

Today, the provision of adult and continuing education in Scotland divides into six broad categories :-

1. Scottish Institutions funded from London

Eight Scottish Universities - undergraduate and postgraduate teaching; special provision for adults through their Departments of Adult, Extra-Mural or Continuing Education.

2. Institutions funded directly by the Scottish Office

Sixteen Central Institutions - degree courses related to careers in industry, commerce and the professions; limited special provision for adults.

Five Colleges of Education - train both graduates and non-graduates for teaching in schools; also courses for professional social workers and community educators.

Newbattle Abbey College - Scotland's only adult residential college; one and two year courses concentrating upon history, english, politics, philosophy, economics and trade union studies.

3. Bodies funded by Local Government

Twelve Regional and Island Education authorities with 49 further education colleges; provide a wide range of sub-degree courses mainly career orientated in a very extensive series of modules. These facilitate adult participation in the mainstream programmes of the colleges which also make some special provision for adults. Regional community education services concentrate upon non-vocational courses and increasingly upon encouraging participation in community based activities, funding projects to help disadvantaged groups and supporting voluntary organisations whose work involves adults.
With falling school rolls, there is now increasing emphasis on adult participation in school programmes.

4. Manpower Services Commission

As part of the policy of central government to control education more directly, the Manpower Services Commission, a national government agency, now funds a large amount of vocational education particularly within further education and the professional and commercial updating courses of the higher education institutions.

5. Employers and Private Sector Training Agencies

They are benefiting from government funding provided through the Job Training Scheme, Local Grants to Employers etc.

6. Voluntary Organisations

Receive funds from both the Scottish Office and the Education Authorities. A wide range of which the most important are :-

Workers Educational Association, Scottish Co-operative Association, The Scottish Women's Rural Institute, The Scottish Trade Unions Congress.

In the last ten years, there has been at least a 50% reduction in traditional non-vocational local authority programmes. However, there has been a substantial growth of opportunities for adults in open learning, schools, Scotvec National Certificate and access to higher education.

111.Research into Adult and Continuing Education in Scotland - themes and priorities.

Although structures vary widely between countries, the central preoccupations which guide policy and inform research may be surprisingly similar. The Canadian report "From the Adults' Point of View" CAAE/ICAE (1982), began with five "key questions" about adult education and training. Four of these were concerned with general issues and strike many responses from Scottish Adult Educators viz :

1. Does adult education redistribute the chances in our society ?
2. What are the changing patterns of learning needs of the adult population in the 1980's ?
3. How responsive are educational institutions to the learning needs of adults ?
4. How do post-secondary financing arrangements and occupational training funding affect the behaviour of institutions ?

Many of the current research enquiries in Scotland address themselves to one or more of these issues.

a). The Financing of Adult and Continuing Education

All of us working in adult education are concerned about funding, usually about the lack of it ! Hamilton (1988), looked at 'Budgets for Adult Education in Scotland," taking the financial year 1985/6 as the base for the survey. The survey revealed that the most substantial public sector funding for adult education and training in Scotland now came from the Manpower Services Commission and was geared towards vocational training rather than general education. There had been a shift in resources from traditional funding and providing bodies to new ones of which the MSC was the prime example. There was also a new emphasis on "pump-priming" rather than "core funding" leading to a plethora of short term projects with the assumption that adult education agencies would become self-financing. Ames (1986), in England and Wales found "clear evidence that the cost of study deters adults from returning to study" and the present system of financial support is "complex and difficult for many adults to understand." SIACE is currently proposing a survey of financial barriers to access to education and training for individual adults in Scotland.

b).Participation in Adult and Continuing Education

Surveys in different countries eg. Johnston and Rivera (1965), CAAE/ICEA (1982), and ACACE (1982), have shown that those who participate in adult and continuing education are likely to be younger, have higher levels of initial education, higher incomes and are more likely to be in employment than non-participants. In Scotland, Munn and MacDonald (1988a), are currently carrying out a survey of the adult population looking at attitudes towards education and training and reasons for non-participation. So far, the survey has identified some 42% of the adult sample as "participants" and reveals that knowledge of educational opportunities is very poor, particularly of newer approaches such as open learning.

Concern with the non-participants was one of the main themes of the Alexander Report (1975), which showed that women and disadvantaged groups were under-represented in adult and continuing education programmes. Hart (1988), points up the contrast between the determination of many women to undertake education and training and the relative lack of guidance and flexible provision which caters specifically for their needs. Bamford (1988), is carrying out a survey of "Gender and Education in Scotland" and a study is currently proposed by SIACE on equal opportunities and training policies by Scottish employers vis-a-vis women.

As regards groups and individuals disadvantaged economically, socially and educationally, studies have been carried out by Stott (1975), Jackson (1976), Alexander, Leach and Steward (1983), and Kirkwood and Kirkwood (1988). The latter study focuses on the Adult Learning Project in Edinburgh, which for the last 10 years has sought to apply the ideas of Paulo Freire in a European context.

c). Changing Patterns of Learning Needs.

In recent years, there has been increasing interest in guidance for adult returners, reflected in such research publications as UDACE (1985), Alloway (1987), Alexander and Steward (1987), Nelson (1988), and Docherty (1988). All these studies define guidance broadly, covering a spectrum of activities including Informing, Advising, Counselling, Accessing, Enabling, Advocating and Providing Feedback. The research completed so far shows that guidance services in the U. K. and Scotland are patchy and uncoordinated, that adults generally do not know where to seek guidance and that those who do tend to be the younger and better educated sections of the community.

d). How Responsive are Institutions to the Learning Needs of Adults ?

Major developments in Scotland in this area include the 16+ Action Plan which is designed to replace a fragmented system of further education (sub-degree) provision by a unified system of modular training leading to the award of a National Certificate. Johnston (1988), has researched adult participation in the National Certificate and has shown that participation by mature students is growing and that there is a pattern of higher achievement by those over 18. Munn (1987) has looked at guidance and choice within the 16+ Action Plan while Hartley (1987) has examined non-didactic teaching styles advocated by the Action Plan. Paine (1987) has researched ways of developing open learning modules for the Action Plan.

Horobin (1987) has summarised research on mature students in higher education, Gallagher (1988), the extent and nature of part-time degree provision in colleges and universities in Scotland. SIACE proposes to research the extent to which adults participate in school programmes and how far present provision includes child care, specialist staffing, staff development, student guidance, special accommodation and other support services for adults. These new developments and growing adult participation in them have raised awkward questions such as how far current curricula and teaching methods are appropriate for adult learners.

Munn and MacDonald (1988b), are currently conducting a survey of " Teaching and Learning in Continuing Education " which aims to assess whether the learning needs of adults differ from those of younger students and to look at implications for teaching methods. It will look at the problems, learning needs and motivation of adults and the ways in which these are catered for by providers. Bligh (1988). is carrying out a literature review of the recent developments in psychology applied to small group teaching in continuing education. However, the more difficult questions of what curricula and learning methods are appropriate for the large number of adults who do not currently take part in learning programmes remain largely outside the scope of research enquiries, although the experience of Adult Basic Education in Scotland and of programmes such as the Edinburgh Adult Learning Project may have some insights to offer here.

1V. Areas of Collaboration between Scotland and Canada

I hope I have indicated in this brief survey the patterns of interest and pre-occupations of research workers in Scotland. Certain areas suggest themselves as possibilities for collaborative research projects between the two countries:-

1. An overall study of adult and continuing education provision in a Scottish Region and a Canadian Province. It could look at decision making, the openness of adult learning, the role of voluntary organisations and resources including funding.
2. Participation in adult learning programmes - a comparison between Scotland and Canada.

More specific projects might include :

1. Part-time students in higher education - drawing on the wealth of knowledge and experience in the Canadian sector.
2. Women and the New Technology.
3. Training and Equal Opportunities Programmes by Employers with special reference to women.
4. Learning Opportunities for Ethnic Minorities.
5. Adult Learning and Teaching.
6. Informal Education including Adult Basic Education.
7. Open Learning Systems.

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Abbreviations

ACACE	Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education
CAAE	Canadian Association for Adult Education
ICEA	L'Institut canadien d'education des adultes
HMSO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
NIACE	National Institute for Adult and Continuing Education (England and Wales)
SCOTVEC	Scottish Vocational Education Council
SCET	Scottish Council for Educational Technology
SCRE	Scottish Council for Research in Education
SIACE	Scottish Institute of Adult andCContinuing Education
UDACE	Unit for the Development of Adult Continuing Education

PERCEPTIONS OF PROFESSIONALISM OF RN/BSN STUDENTS PURSUING A BACCALAUREATE DEGREE

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American health care practices are changing. Shifts in population characteristics, alterations in health and illness patterns, and rapid technological advances have brought about an increasingly complex health care system. Regulatory agencies, reimbursement policies and credentialing requirements have set minimum standards for approval that include requirements for health care personnel. The complexity of this system demands changes in the educational preparation of individuals who are employed in health care services. The American Nurses Association (ANA 1985a) and the National League for Nursing (NLN 1983) in response to these changes in society, have established the baccalaureate degree as the entry level to practice professional nursing. Education at the baccalaureate level is a base for rational thinking and provides the student with the background requisite to independent judgment, leadership, decision making and research (Smullen 1983; Butterfield 1985). The baccalaureate prepared nurse is a generalist who is capable of practicing in a variety of settings and has acquired a habit of learning and inquiry which are essential in order to provide care in a rapidly changing environment (ANA 1985b).

The majority of nurses in practice today have not graduated from baccalaureate nursing programs. In the United States, only 31.1% of nurses graduated with a baccalaureate degree in nursing (BSN), whereas, 68.9% graduated with either an associate degree (54%) or a diploma (14.9%) (ANA 1985a). In order to achieve the entry level for professional practice, the associate degree and diploma prepared nurses require additional education.

The registered nurse baccalaureate student comes to the educational setting with a variety of experiences. These adult learners differ from those individuals who enter baccalaureate programs as a beginning career choice (Shane 1983). Traditionally, baccalaureate nursing programs are designed for the beginning nurse student. The registered nurse (RN) returning to school requires a different pattern of learning experiences. Several programs have evolved across the country and in the State of Ohio to assist these adult learners.

Role change has been reported to have occurred in graduates (Whelan 1984). Many report that they have changed positions of employment and/or continued to pursue more education. What is not known is what actual changes related to professionalism and the transition process occur, and whether or not they see themselves as professionals.

Many nurses have assumed the title of professional, but often seem quite unaware of the meaning of "profession" or the problems involved in achieving professionalism. It would seem they lack what is referred to as a "professional identity" (Moloney 1986).

With increasing numbers of registered nurses returning to school to seek the baccalaureate degree, their resocialization is a major focus for the nurse educators who develop curriculum and implement the educational process. Research on the resocialization process with RN's related to the development of professionalism and the professionalization process in nursing is minimal (Smullen 1983).

Because "role transformation" is seen by some educators in nursing as the key needed to advance the professionalism of nursing (Moloney 1986), investigators studied the concept of professionalism in a group of RN's returning to school. The need for assisting RN students to develop a "professional identity" was the impetus for this study.

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions' of professionalism of RN's returning to school for a Bachelor of Science in Nursing. Assumptions included:

1. RN's enter the baccalaureate setting with a task/job orientation.
2. Changes in perception are effected by the educational process.
3. A change in perception of professionalism does occur during the sequence.

Research questions addressed included:

1. Why do RN's return to school?
2. Does a change in the perception of the concept of professionalism occur?
3. What influences the change?

For purposes of this study the following definitions were used:

1. Perception - an awareness or a mental grasp of an idea (Webster 1982).
2. Professionalism - a committment to characteristic attitudes and responses (Moloney 1986).
3. Registered Nurse - a licensed nurse graduated from a hospital diploma or associate degree program.

When we study nurses we are speaking primarily about women. An understanding of nursing's history includes an understanding of gender roles and that influence on individual and group behavior, as well as that effect on the understanding of occupation, profession, and what makes an occupation a profession. This, along with the concept of professionalism, the features which define a profession, as well as the struggle with career development have been explored by Rosenfeld (1986).

The division in nursing related to the role of the nurse and where nursing education for "professional practice" should occur is still rampant. Components of professionalism such as autonomy, identification with standards of practice, a knowledge base for practice and a committment to the profession itself are discussed throughout Moloney's book (1986) as well as the necessity for role transformation.

Whelan applied the Bevis role-orientation instrument in studying a group of students, and found support in a change occurring toward increased professionalization among RN's attending an upper division level nursing program.

Research related to perceptions of professionalism in registered nurses returning to school appears to be minimal.

Smullen (1983) discusses the concept of professionalism and the process in her study on role transformation. (One of her recommendations is to study further how this change occurs, when and what the relationship is to the educational process.)

Support of the idea that further education promotes the development of professionalism is reflected in the literature cited above. Further expansion of the literature is recommended in additional studies.

The setting design for this study was a classroom in a community college in northeast Ohio. Twenty six RN to BSN students, enrolled in the first clinical course of a one year nursing sequence, were approached to participate in the study. Twenty two students chose to complete the questionnaire at the beginning of the sequence and twenty four students completed the questionnaire at the completion of the sequence, nine months later.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. Part I included eight demographic items. Part II consisted of five open end questions and Part III contained a ninteen item forced choice test regarding professional characteristics. The questionnaire was analyzed at the beginning and end of the RN/BSN clinical sequence which consisted of three semesters. Demographic data was tabulated and the mean of forced choice items was calculated at the beginning and end of the sequence.

Analysis of Part II revealed the following responses to the first question "Why did you return to school?". It generated three themes. Eleven responses indicated the reason was either for "job security" or "advancement". Eight responses alluded to self actualization. Six persons mentioned professionalism in some way. Analysis of that question at the end of the sequence generated a variety of responses. Ninteen responses made reference to the desire to advance in nursing. Fifteen responses alluded to self actualization. Six persons indicated the reason was for job security and three stated they returned to become "professional"

The response to question two at the beginning of the sequence, "What is your conception of professionalism in nursing?", evoked a wide variety of responses. Responses that could be substantiated in nursing literature as professional traits or behaviors were catagorized. Catagories emerged as follows. Twelve referred to education, six listed accountability, three listed expertise or skills. Autonomy, decision making skills and maintaining a standard of care were each mentioned twice. Eleven responses were vague and unable to be substantiated by professional characteristics in nursing literature. At the end of the sequence question two was refined to read "What is your perception of professionalism in nursing?". Fourteen people referred to education or knowledge base, nine referred to accountability, seven to responsibility and six referred to autonomy. Three people made reference to expertise or skills. Eleven vague responses were elicited.

At the beginning of the sequence response to question three, "Describe your perception of professionalism as it relates to yourself as a professional at this time.", separated into the following catagories. Ten responses referred to leadership traits and included items such as accountable, assertive, stronger self-concept, educated, knowledgeable, confident, and responsible. Sixteen responses were vague relationships to professionalism. At the end of the sequence responses separated into the following catagories. Ten referred to increased or certain body of knowledge. Five responses referred to performing to achieve standards of care. Ten responses included characteristics often attributed to professionals. (accountability, autonomy, responsibility, takes initiative)

At the beginning of the sequence in response to question four, "Has your perception of professionalism changed since entering the sequence?", three people said no and seven people said yes with references made to education. Examples included "increased knowledge base" and "has increased my accountability and responsibility". Another fifteen responses indicated yes but responses were only vaguely related to professionalism at all. Many of the responses were not able to be substantiated by nursing literature as professional traits or behavior. At the end of the sequence five responded "no" and ninteen responded "yes". Fifteen explanations directly acknowledged the educational process for their change in perception. Three replied they had gained awareness of characteristics of professionals.

Question five asked "What has influenced your concept of professionalism?". At the beginning of the sequence eight people responded "school" or "education". Five persons reported instructors had influenced their concept of professionalism. (An example: ...have been influenced by instructors and how they responded to us as adult learners".) Five persons indicated peers and co-workers had been an influence on their perception of professionalism. At the end of the sequence thirty eight education-related responses were elicited. They included classroom teaching strategies, clinical learning experiences, nursing theory, literature and research, fellow students and instructors. Six non-educational responses were given.

Conclusions from the study by the researchers regarding RN/BSN students' perceptions of professionalism are: (1) beginning students in the RN/BSN sequence had only vague ideas about the concept of professionalism (2) they came to the sequence with a job/task orientation (3) they were unable to articulate specific behaviors and attitudes of professional nurses upon entry into the sequence (4) traits valued in professional nurses may have contributed to role conflict experienced in the returning RN/BSN student (5) changes in perception of professionalism were affected by the educational process (6) a change in perception of professionalism did occur during the RN/BSN sequence (7) students were more articulate in relating traits and behaviors of professionals as substantiated in the nursing literature. Vague responses were elicited less often.

One of the recommendations was to develop a model for teaching to facilitate changes related to the resocialization process in the transition from a technical to a professional role.

"A model represents some aspect of reality, concrete or abstract, by means of a likeness which may be structural, pictorial, diagramatic or mathmatical." (Bush 1979 p. 16). "A model is essentially an analogy, a symbolic representation of an idea." (Wilson 1985 p. 264).

It was decided to construct a teaching model which would serve as an organizing structure but also as a system for understanding and analyzing the phenomena associated with the resocialization process. Through the construction of such a model, it is possible to conceptualize direction and theoretical explanations for further conceptualization related especially to a qualitative research study.

"Educational models can generally be used in three ways: in guiding the student-teacher interaction, in planning the curriculum and in selecting materials for instruction. In nursing education, as in nursing research, and in nursing practice, a model serves to unify, give direction and to simplify. By using a model, the nurse educator can identify focuses and rationalize them within an appropriate frame of reference." (Bush 1979 p. 19).

In nursing education two major types of models are used - a general model for the teaching-learning process and a model developed specifically for nursing. (Bush 1979).

The investigators have constructed a general systems model for the teaching-learning process based upon Knowles' model for self-directed learning, Houle's "dynamic conception of professionalization and the three modes of learning used by practitioners" in a vocational/professional group (Langenbach 1987 p. 122).

The model first considers both faculty and RN student's life experiences (personal, professional, and educational) developmental stage, marital and family status, peer relationships and value systems.

The existing curriculum of any given educational program operates as a suprasystem. Within that system one can utilize Knowles' principles of andragogy and self-directed learning design to set the climate for learning and to begin the facilitation process between teacher and learner. Knowles provides a framework for guiding learner initiated activities, individualized learning for a group with diverse life experiences in a rapidly, ever changing world in which we live.

Houle's characteristics of professionalizations in general, as well as characteristics of professionalization for nursing have been incorporated in the model.

The model will be demonstrated through a slide presentation.

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"BUT WHAT DO YOU DO? YOU ONLY TEACH 3 WEEKS A YEAR:" ISSUES IN DISTANCE EDUCATION FROM A FACULTY PERSPECTIVE.

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The basic problem experienced by distance education faculty seems to be rooted in the classic definition of the word "teach" which is "to impart knowledge of or skill in; give instruction" all of which implies classroom presence. When university faculty do not conform to this definition and image by using a different mode of delivery as distance educators do, they often become targets of suspicious remarks, and worse still, pejorative statements. In addition, they encounter difficulties which faculty who work in traditional university programs simply do not have to contend with.

The writing on distance education deals mostly with the challenges of delivery and the issues relating to students. Very little is written about the faculty members who deliver these programs. This article is one attempt to address this paucity. It describes several issues relating to distance education from the perspective of five current and former faculty members in a particular graduate program.

A "grounded theory" (Glaser, 1978) methodology which makes use of in depth interviews was used to collect data. Such a method was chosen as it allows us to know people personally and to see them as they are developing their own definitions of their world (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975; Bogdan and Biklin, 1982).

While there was no clear consensus on any issues from those interviewed, five themes, however, emerge from the data. These are: status of distance education programs and faculty, faculty control, organization of time, access to students, and the drop-out problem. Three of these will be discussed in this article which is exploratory in nature. It describes issues and raises questions.

The Educational Context

Bertrand (1979) divides distance education into three distinct categories: institution-centered, which focuses on increasing the efficiency of an educational institution; person-centered, which places an emphasis on the individual learner; and society-centered, which is concerned with social action.

The Master of Adult Education program at St. Francis Xavier University clearly fits the person-centered category, as outlined in the following three foundational principles:

(1) It is a self-directed learning program in which students design, implement and evaluate their learning program within a pre-determined institutional framework.
(2) It is an experiential program which is based on the practical application of knowledge.

(3) It is centered on individualized learning contracts which are developed by each student in consultation with the faculty.

Given this focus, the role of the faculty in our Department is quite different from other faculty at the same institution who generally operate within a traditional framework of delivery. Our main responsibility is to serve as "learning process advisors" to students throughout their programs, and to act as "reactors" to learning rather than as "initiators". In brief, the primary role of the faculty is to provide ongoing support to the students in their learning programs.

Status of Distance Education Programs and Faculty

> We'd get remarks from faculty like "You guys are so privileged you can sit down and read everything all the time!" We were not reading in our field. We were reading students' materials.

Faculty C continues sarcastically, "We were always the brunt of the faculty bar jokes." While he was referring to comments of the past, this perception has not diminished with time. Just prior to his death, one of John Dobson's colleagues in another department made a rather disparaging remark about his work. He argued that John must have a very easy job because he was 'only' in charge of one 3 week orientation session each year. "But what does John do," he asked in biting jest, "He only works 3 weeks a year!"

Experiencing difficulty with some colleagues in other departments is one issue which we seem to be continually dealing with over the years. It is a concern reported also in the literature (Calvert, 1986; Cornwall, 1981; Fairfield, 1977). We have heard our program referred to as "mickey mouse" and "second-best", and ourselves described as either inadequate or under worked. Some of these comments appear to be based on either false assumptions or a lack of understanding about the learning process. One false assumption is that in order to learn students must be physically present in a classroom. Following from this, the credibility of our program is called into question because our students learn at a distance. A common misunderstanding is that learning is the result of teaching and the teachers' responsibility is to cause learning at the highest possible level. This theory views students as empty vessels with the faculty pouring knowledge into them. For those who espouse this idea, a program which is based on a self-directed approach and operates in a distance learning mode must be treated with a certain amount of mistrust and skepticism.

Faculty A and E tell us they simply ignored the jeers of their colleagues while Faculty C and D have attempted different tactics which are both successful in their view. In casual conversation, for example, Faculty C would point out that adult education is a professional field of practice, not an academic discipline, and like other professional schools it uses a different milieu for learning.

> A lot of faculty understood that right away. That sort of diffused any lack of credibility. I pointed out the success of our graduates and the fact that we were a professional development program.

Faculty D's tactic is slightly different:

> One of the godsends about our program is that we do have a thesis. I often see a change in people when I talk about the program and they shrink back and say "Oh well, this is one of those fly-by-night outfits". And the minute I say "there's a thesis requirement" they get back into the conversation again.

Fairfield (1977) points out that when traditionalists attack our programs "we react as though we were vulnerable" (p.119). We become defensive and respond to unwarranted criticism by reverting to arguments that "prove" that we are as good as traditional programs and that our program does not lower standards. "The assumption is, of course, that the critic's standards are high and that any change is a lowering!" (Fairfield, 1977, p.122).

The question is one of how to handle derogatory comments. Do we respond or not? How satisfactory are some of the tactics we use? Should we get caught up trying to defend ourselves against traditional programs?

Organization of Time

Organizing time in an unstructured program is viewed by faculty from opposite perspectives. For instance, Faculty D explains:

> One of the joys of the program is that we have a flexibility that other people envy. We are more in charge of our time than faculty in traditional universities who have class schedules, posted pre-determined visiting hours, etc.

For others, working in a distance education environment seriously impinges on research time. We are expected to be physically accessible throughout the week and must be constantly available to students who might telephone for assistance. This situation is quite different from those faculty in traditional programs who are expected to be in the office only on certain pre-determined days. Faculty B explains:

> Because this is a self-directed program we have to be here. We really can't take the time off. Other faculty stay home to do research. They leave notes on their doors regarding times when they are available to students. We have to go into the office every day and be there from 9:00 to 5:00. But I realize it's important that we're here.

A number of faculty spoke of difficulties in attempting to deal with the unpredictable nature of their workload. Faculty D explains:

> I find it difficult to control the workload. I never really know when a thesis or project reports are going

> to arrive on my desk. I'm always negotiating my time to accommodate students time and I find that a problem.

Fairfield (1977) suggests that the traditional ways of measuring student/faculty load are simply not applicable to innovative graduate programs. The problem then becomes one of balancing student work against other faculty responsibilities. Faculty D continues:

> I was influenced by (---) who used to say that the university also requires us to do some research and we can't be always giving up the research time to do students' work. And if we don't do research we'll be caught out in the cold. And I think that we have to make decisions about our own research and our own vacations.

In support of this viewpoint, Fairfield (1977) argues vehemently for faculty setting parameters on their time and then not feeling guilty about it.

In a broader sense of the same issue, Faculty D notes that people assume we are always available because we are not tied into an institutional structure. Often we find ourselves being imposed upon, and occasionally we encourage such impositions, assuming that it is a normal part of the job. For example: running to the bus depot to pick up material submitted by students; sitting in the office at 10:00 - 11:00 p.m. some evenings, waiting for pre-arranged calls from students so they can take advantage of reduced telephone rates; and meeting with students on weekends and holidays. As Faculty D exclaims:

> We all do it. (---) does the same thing. (---) phoned up to say that the only day she could come in was on Saturday. So (---) was here on a Saturday morning. I've done that too. I met with one student on New Years Day!
>
> People in traditional programs don't do this. I don't think it's the expectation either. I don't think that a student in a traditional program would expect the professor to be available at times other than at posted office times, whereas our students do.

While accessibility is a characteristic that humanistic professors should practice if they expect to be effective in their roles (Fairfield, 1977), the question becomes where should we draw the line?

Access to Students

An issue that frequently arose centers on the lack of a face-to-face work relationship with students. For some, distance heightens communication difficulties with students. As Faculty D explains:

> I was a teacher all my life. I was a classroom teacher, which implied that I had people physically present to me. I saw them daily. When I taught at university, it was always this face-to-face kind of thing with real people in front of me. Not that I'm

> dealing with unreal people, but I don't see them.

Similarly, Faculty B mentions that her orientation has always been in face-to-face contact. Because of this, she feels quite comfortable with students both during the orientation sessions and on those occasions when they visit the department.

> When a student comes here, that is very dynamic in a sense, because I get the feeling that the student is using me as a sounding board. They may make a comment and may pass over it. I can pick up on it and bring them back. This is missing when you write to them.

However, for Faculty C, this is not a problem. He strongly believes that if faculty express concern in this area, this view indicates a flaw in their understanding of the concept of self-directed learning. He reminisces:

> I would always say "That's teacher anxiety. You are wanting to say `either I can manipulate you to understand by face-to-face talk' or `I can act the counsellor'. By doing that, you are robbing that person of his genuine ability to get confidence in his own skills of directing his learning at a distance. If you need face-to-face contact, you'd better look at your own understanding of what you're doing". The advice wasn't always received kindly!

However, the issue is not that simple for some. A number of faculty consider themselves to be "people" oriented. While faculty in traditional graduate departments enjoy daily interaction with students, faculty in a distance education program work in an environment where we are isolated from people. For 9 weeks every year we are inundated with students, sometimes to the point of exhaustion. For the remainder of the year the Department is empty, save for the occasional student who visits. Consequently, it is easy for faculty members to become starved for intellectual stimulation.

How do those who express a need for personal contact with students deal with the issue? While some encourage telephone calls, others argue the need to schedule periodic visits to the Department at crucial points throughout the programs. In this way students would be able to dialogue freely with the faculty as opposed to relying solely on written communication. In fact, Faculty A suggests that a mandatory visit be integrated into the program at the thesis outline stage.

One key question emerges from this issue. Would the purpose of such visits be primarily to help the students or to fulfil a faculty need?

In summary, this study presents a perspective not covered in the literature, that of the distance educator. It describes several issues deemed important by faculty who have been involved in the daily operation of a particular distance education program and raises some question for discussion. Because distance education is rapidly gaining in popularity, further research is needed to examine these issues in greater depth and to discover others. This study provides a beginning for those interested in all aspects of distance education.

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PROBLEMES ET ELEMENTS DE SOLUTION LIES A LA DEFINITION DE L'OBJET D'ETUDE EN RECHERCHE QUALITATIVE: TROIS ILLUSTRATIONS

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PROBLEMATIQUE

La recherche qualitative est appelée à jouer un rôle de premier plan dans le champ d'étude de l'éducation des adultes. Ce type de recherche s'avère pertinent, voire nécessaire, lorsqu'un champ d'étude - quelqu'il soit- n'a pas encore un bagage théorique établi, ou lorsque ce champ requiert une nouvelle perspective, une perspective holistique plutôt que réductionniste, ou encore, lorsqu'il importe de connaître le point de vue des personnes impliquées dans une action précise, dans un contexte donné (Mocker, 1986). Plutôt que les chiffres, les mots exprimant des définitions, des significations ou des descriptions (Smith, 1987) servent de base (Miles et Huberman, 1984). La recherche qualitative comprend différentes approches qui, étalées sur un continuum, vont des recherches purement inductives-telles l'approche interprétative et l'approche artistique-, en passant par des approches intermédiaires, dites systématiques, jusqu'à des approches purement déductives -telles les approches fondées a priori sur des théories qui sont à vérifier (Smith, 1987). L'approche intermédiaire dite systématique de Miles et Huberman (1984) a été retenue dans le cadre de la présente étude, étant donné l'ampleur de la démarche théorique qui y est prônée -incluant l'induction-découverte jusqu'à la déduction-vérification- et étant donné également l'importance que l'on accorde aux critères de fidélité et de validité qui guident l'ensemble de la démarche de recherche (Kirk et Miller, 1986; Smith, 1987). Les principales phases des recherches qualitatives réalisées selon cette dernière approche, dans une perspective de théorisation, sont la définition de l'objet d'étude, la collecte et l'analyse des données, l'étude et la vérification des résultats (Miles et Huberman, 1984). Ces phases sont intrinsèquement interreliées.

La présente recherche a porté sur la phase de définition de l'objet d'étude. Le but de cette recherche d'ordre méthodologique était d'identifier les principaux problèmes ainsi que les principaux éléments de solution se rapportant à trois aspects essentiels de cette phase: 1. élaboration du cadre de référence: A. choix des dimensions/éléments (variables) et B. définitions retenues; 2. référence à la théorie sous-jacente - examen de la validité théorique du cadre de référence; 3. A. traitement et B. analyse des données liées directement à (1.) l'élaboration du cadre de référence ou à (2.) la théorie sous-jacente.

METHODE

Une étude préliminaire d'une série de recherches qualitatives réalisées à la Section d'andragogie a porté sur l'ensemble des phases méthodologiques. Trois recherches dont la phase de définition de l'objet d'étude offrait des aspects problématiques ont été retenues. Toutes trois ont été analysées en fonction des problèmes et des éléments de solution se rapportant aux trois aspects ci-haut mentionnés (cf. problématique). Trois cas-problèmes serviront ici à illustrer les problèmes et éléments de solution étudiés.

RESULTATS

Les principaux problèmes et éléments de solution identifiés se rapportent aux aspects suivants: I- lien entre (1.A.) l'élaboration du cadre- choix des dimensions/éléments et (2.) la théorie sous-jacente - illustration: recherche portant sur le processus d'apprentissage d'adultes visiteurs de musées; II- lien entre (1.B.) les définitions des dimensions/éléments (variables) et (3.A.) le traitement des données (élaboration des codes et des catégories de codes) - illustration: recherche portant sur les types d'enseignement-apprentissage réalisés dans des organismes volontaires africains; III- déplacement du cadre de référence étant donné l'interaction entre (1.) ce dernier, (2.) la théorie sous-jacente et (3.B.) l'analyse des données - illustration: recherche portant sur le processus d'apprentissage autodidactique.

I - Lien entre le choix des dimensions/éléments du cadre de référence et la théorie sous-jacente:

Une recherche portant sur un phénomène peu connu entraîne une démarche inductive, exploratoire de cueillette des données, puisque les dimensions et éléments correspondants du cadre de référence ne seront, en grande partie, identifiés et catégorisés qu'au fur et à mesure que progressera la collecte des données. Cependant, les données recueillies inductivement, auprès de répondant-e-s en particulier, semblent, une fois qu'un certain seuil est atteint, insuffisantes pour fournir des éléments du cadre qui permettraient une théorisation plus approfondie.

Ce problème a été identifié lors d'une étude du processus d'apprentissage informel d'adultes visiteurs de musées (Dufresne-Tassé, 1987). Dans l'exemple fourni, la démarche inductive a permis d'identifier et de décrire certaines dimensions à partir des comptes-rendus des sujets: perceptions, activités imaginaire et émotive, questionnements, raisonnements, etc. Le visiteur construirait l'objet regardé et sa signification parce que la situation muséale l'y invite. Toutefois, continuer la démarche inductive aboutit à une impasse: les comptes-rendus des sujets étudiés fournissent toujours les mêmes données frustres et fragmentaires sur leur propre fonctionnement. Ceci est compréhensible puisque la plupart des aspects du fonctionnement du visiteur sont devenus des automatismes et, de ce fait, lui échappent; les comptes-rendus qu'il offre sont à la limite de ses capacités de narration.

Un élément de solution consisterait, dans le cas exposé, à utiliser des instruments de type projectif qui incitent une personne à raconter des éléments de son expérience qu'elle ne pourrait livrer spontanément, à faire ensuite des hypothèses permettant d'interpréter leur signification et, enfin, à vérifier -de façon déductive- à quel point ces projections sont exactes. Les approches inductive et déductive pourraient se succéder comme deux mouvements distincts mais complémentaires, réapparaissant périodiquement.

II - Lien entre les définitions des dimensions/éléments (variables) du cadre de référence et l'élaboration des codes et des catégories de codes correspondants:

Une recherche dont le cadre de référence de départ est élaboré à partir de recherches déjà existantes dans des domaines connexes, peut entraîner, au cours de la phase de cueillette et analyse des données, un réajustement de certaines définitions découlant du cadre de référence. Ce réajustement entraîne, à son tour, une modification du codage à cause du changement de signification des dimensions correspondantes.

Ce problème a été identifié lors de l'étude du mode d'intervention éducative d'organismes volontaires camerounais (Esuans), dans le domaine de l'éducation non formelle liée au développement socio-économique et culturel (Mvilongo-Tsala, 1987). Dans l'exemple fourni, un conflit a surgi entre certaines données recueillies auprès des répondant-e-s (emic data) et les définitions de certaines dimensions choisies *a priori* à partir des écrits recensés (etic data). Ces organismes semblent fondre en un tout cohérent les dimensions éducatives (apprentissage et enseignement), psychologiques, socio-culturelles, socio-politiques et économiques.

Les données fournies ont donc amené le chercheur à reformuler, avant de réduire les données en vue de l'analyse finale, l'ensemble des définitions qui ne semblaient pas correspondre à la réalité des organismes étudiés. C'est ainsi que la définition de la dimension "aide à l'apprentissage", par exemple, a dû être modifiée: la définition établie *a priori* accentuait les "stratégies mises en branle par l'agent éducatif pour réaliser des objectifs éducatifs", tandis que la définition *a posteriori* accentuait plutôt "les conditions de réalisation des actions entreprises par l'ensemble de l'association" ainsi que "le support collectif face à un membre ou à un sous-groupe devant acquérir soit des connaissances nouvelles, des attitudes nouvelles ou encore devant arriver à des changements de comportements". Les codes ont dû être scindés en autant d'éléments et de sous-éléments correspondant à cette nouvelle interprétation de la dimension "aide à l'apprentissage".

III - Déplacement du cadre de référence produit par l'interaction entre ce dernier, la théorie sous-jacente et l'analyse des données:

Les chercheur-e-s dont le cadre de référence de départ est fortement influencé par des dimensions théoriques repérées dans les écrits peuvent, suite à l'analyse réalisée lors de la phase de cueillette des données, avoir à remettre en question les fondements théoriques qui sous-tendent leur cadre de référence et avoir ainsi à "déplacer" leur angle d'approche du phénomène étudié. Ce déplacement de l'approche entraîne automatiquement une modification du cadre de référence.

Ce problème a été identifié lors de l'étude exploratoire du processus d'apprentissage d'adultes autodidactes (Danis et Tremblay, 1985). Le courant de recherche qui prédomine actuellement dans les études s'intéressant à ce phénomène est le courant américain qui aborde l'étude du processus d'apprentissage soit sous l'angle du traitement de l'information, soit sous l'angle du management. Les chercheures ayant opté pour l'approche du management lors de l'élaboration de leur cadre de référence de départ, elles ont constaté, dès la première analyse des données, que le contenu des comptes-rendus présentés par les sujets étudiés ne correspondait pas aux approches théoriques prônées dans les écrits. Les dimensions du cadre de départ faisaient ressortir des étapes établies, des prises de décisions correspondant à des étapes précises ainsi qu'une orientation explicite de tout le processus d'apprentissage vers la réalisation d'objectifs prédéterminés. Par contre, les données faisaient plutôt ressortir une démarche qui n'était pas liée à des étapes fixes, une façon d'aborder divers processus d'apprentissage par le biais de stratégies et de tactiques variées, interchangeables, fortement déterminées par le contenu et par le contexte des apprenants, ainsi qu'une accentuation de l' aspect méta-cognitif.

L'analyse des données a donc amené les chercheures, soucieuses d'assurer une certaine validité théorique, à modifier entièrement leur cadre de référence avant de procéder à l'analyse définitive des données.

CONCLUSION

Lorsque le champ d'étude de l'éducation des adultes est placé dans une perspective de théorisation (theory-building), la recherche qualitative dite systématique est certes des plus riches. L'accentuation des notions de fidélité et de validité ainsi que l'insistance se rapportant à la nécessité d'expliciter les techniques utilisées -souvent créées- par les chercheur-e-s dans le but de rendre possible la reproduction de ces techniques par d'autres collègues, rendent cette approche intermédiaire souhaitable.

L'opérationnalisation des diverses phases de cette approche surtout sur le plan des problèmes à résoudre et des techniques à utiliser demeure cependant encore relativement peu développée dans notre champ d'étude. Aussi, le fait de partager certains problèmes concrets reliés à une phase cruciale de cette démarche -comme c'est le cas ici- ne peut-il que contribuer à clarifier et nos méthodes qualitatives et les options théoriques qui les sous-tendent.

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THE ALBERTA PROFILE OF ADULT BASIC SKILLS

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A Context for the Education of Adults

Historically the education of adults has been treated as similar in many important respects to the education of younger learners, and consequently has been based upon objectives identified in public school goals statements. While these objectives and the accompanying methodology are readily available, intuitively appealing, and have been widely used in the development of adult education curriculum to date, there has been concern about this practice among both adult educators and government. Whether or not objectives and methods designed to educate younger learners are entirely appropriate or optimal for the education of adults has been the focus of some attention in recent years.

A number of reports and research studies in the area of adult education, both in North America and in other countries, suggest that a concentration on the functional, daily living tasks (skills or abilities) that competent adults normally perform in their various roles as members of society may be a more appropriate basis or approach to the issue of developing a suitable adult education curriculum.

Since the definition of functional competency is to a large extent shaped by the society and technology in which an individual must function, it is clearly vital to undertake such definitional studies if competency is to be studied. For the most part, Canada has moved slowly away from the traditional school grade level designation of functional competency used with younger learners.

Creating a New Context for the Education of Adults

In response to this context a group of Alberta adult educators began to discuss new alternative directions. This dialogue occurred within the structure of the Adult Basic Education Steering Committee which was a joint creation of five provincial (Alberta) adult vocational centres. In 1981 the committee began collaborations with a member of the Department of Industrial and Vocational Education and the University of Alberta. The result of this collaborative activity was the design of a method of analysis to identify competencies needed by adults to function effectively in Alberta society. As a result of this analysis the committee hoped to document competencies that could be used for curriculum development and possible further research activities.

The method of analysis the Committee selected was to utilize Phases I and II of the Competency Analysis Profile (CAP) System. This analysis process resulted in the creation of "A Profile of Competencies for Adults Living in Alberta". The Profile resulted from an initial four day brainstorming process involving 12 persons and further verification with 549 adults in the communities of the five Alberta Vocational and Community Centres. As the project continued to develop during 1982/83 the focus and resulting terminology changed from a competency orientation to an emphasis on adult basic skills. This emphasis shift did not effect the basic elements of the Profile. The major categories of skills and the adult basic skill elements remained essentially the same. The general concensus at the time of the shift was that if the "competency" terminology was not changed the project might not be continued as many staff and administration had concluded the "competency" label was too harsh for adults returning to the centres to continue their education. Using competent-incompetent on a competency continuum was considered too harsh when compared to a skilled-unskilled continuum. In retrospect this appears to have been a good decision.

During 1982/83 extensive work was done to develop a Catalogue of Adult Basic Skills. An analysis process was designed by staff of the University of Alberta in collaboration with the Adult Basic Education Steering Committee. Eight brainstorming groups were developed and given the task of further analysing the adult basic skills. This process resulted in over 1400 specific skills being identified by the groups. Following this analysis process a system was designed by the research team to systematically minimize redundancies and commonalities among the specific skills. This reduced the skills from over 1400 to approximately 1000 specific skills. The resulting work, completed in 1983, was a "Catalogue of Adult Basic Skills".

In 1983/84 various implementation strategies were considered for the "Catalogue of Adult Basic Skills". As a result of these considerations a new committee was established to begin the task of examining implementation strategies from identifying priorities to determining appropriate future curriculum directions.

In 1984/85 work was begun to further analyze and identify "learning" skills needed by adults. Brainstorming sessions were designed and held early in 1985 to begin the process of identifying and clarifying these fundamental learning skills. Other developmental seminars, workshops and curriculum development projects based on the Profile of Adult Basic Skills have been initiated since 1984 in each of the five Centres.

A Theoretical Model of Skill Interrelationships

During 1982 analysis work with the Profile of Adult Basic Skills, the need for a conceptual model to represent the Profile became apparent. Discussions were held in the five centres and with the Adult Basic Education Steering Committee regarding various conceptual models and as a result of this dialogue "A Model of the Interrelationships of Adult Basic Skills within a Total Skill Context" was discussed in the "Catalogue of Adult Basic Skills Project Report (1983)". During 1985 the Model underwent further graphical development through the services of a graphic artist from the Instructional Technology Centre in the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta. The current model is a 22" by 34" graphic, four color document which attempts to illustrate possible relationships of the adult basic skills to each other and to other skills an adult may possess. Not only does the Model advance this hypothesized relationship, but it also attempts to relate the Model to the Profile and Catalogue of Adult Basic Skills.

Current Research Thrust

A Project Report submitted to Alberta Advanced Education and Manpower in 1982 suggested that the Profile be subjected to further verification. In 1985 planning was begun for an indepth research project to initiate further verification of the adult basic skills. Edmonton, Alberta was selected as the site for this research. Data collection activities were targeted at a sample of 818 adults, starting in November, 1986 and were completed in June, 1987.

The objectives of this research were to verify the existing "Profile of Adult Basic Skills" for further use in research and applied settings. a second objective was to begin to explore variables such as occupation, education levels, age, sex and language/ethnic/cultural influences which may impact on the importance of the basic skills. A third objective was to involve graduate students with significant Alberta-based research related to adult education. Information on this research should become available during 1989.

Applications of the Alberta Profile of Adult Basic Skills

The Adult Basic Education Committee, comprised of instructors and administrators from the five provincial vocational centres and a representative from Advanced Education, was charged eight years ago with managing and developing field applications for the profile of skills and the Catalogue of Basic Skills. The intent has been to augment and standardize curricula available to Adult Basic Education Instructors in accordance with the skills as verified by the U of A.

The process model through which the latter activity is executed embodies checks and balances to ensure ongoing public input. It is also specifically designed to ensure flexibility of approach to each curriculum assignment and maximum professional development opportunities for the adult educators involved.

When a gap is discovered, i.e., there are insufficient resources available to ABE instructors in addressing a skill or skill cluster, the following process is set in motion. Content experts are convened to address the skill within very specific task/time frames. They research available resources and finally determine whether or not a collection is sufficient. If actual development is necessary, they then determine the most useful medium(a) through which the skill(s) may be addressed and proceed to generate both a mini-pak (annotated list of existing resources and teaching strategies) and a suitable product. Examples of products include: lists of human resources, workshop prototypes, modules, test banks, videos (with the assistance of ACCESS), CAI components, etc.

Apart from these products and collections of resources, the Catalogue of Basic Skills provides a useful resource for many curricula related activities. Since all skills have been computer analyzed, redundancies minimalized and cross-references incorporated, the catalogue embodies what is hoped will eventually become a standardized curricula for the P.A.I.'s. This is not to suggest that every adult student will need to work on every skill, on the contrary, the curricula and delivery modes are/will be flexible so that the entirety or any combination of components can be used as needs arise. The profile (displaying major skills only) or the comprehensive skills listing from the catalogue can be used, as a self-assessment inventory. The profile and/or catalogue can serve as blueprints for courses identifying both competencies within a skills band and cross-referencing to the other bands. For example some E Band (Develop Self) skills are directly related to all context skills either as prerequisites or co-requisites. The "cone", a graphic depiction of the interrelationship of the skills categories also assists in clarifying these connections. The catalogue is an effective resource in the delineation of sub-skills since it methodically outlines components of each skill listed on the profile. Both the profile and the catalogue provide a comprehensive base for identifying, defining and placing in context, skills areas that may have been neglected and are areas of need.

The ongoing collection and analysis of descriptive, qualitative and quantative data regarding needs and present usage of the profile, catalogue and ABE project products keeps the project committee apprised so that future directions are clear and in keeping with instructor/student needs.

At present a four phase implementation package and three pilot projects are underway which will result in a management tool incorporating current instructional design, development and management techniques and which will provide a framework for all of the ABE curricula based on the profile of basic skills. This umbrella (octopus is a more appropriate metaphor since the various tentacles will be adapting to different patterns) will facilitate the management of the curricula related to all skills on the profile.

The implementation phases include specification of criterion referenced assessment measures, design of the Instructional Management Structure (for use with or without computers), implementation of a computer-managed learning training package so that compatible materials and courseware components can be generated and finally the collection and/or development of instructional resources for individual "pigeonholes".

Pilot projects will entail an implementation that is "paper-based" (delivery will occur at some locations that do not enjoy the luxury of "hi-tech"), a computer-managed implementation, and finally, a pilot that will enable users to integrate the package as a resource bank component of existing programs/courses.

If you consider the profile as a set of pigeonholes, some filled, some as yet, awaiting their turn, the octopus becomes the mailman. You consult him and he plops "mail" into the selected pidgeonhole. You and/or your mentor then select the appropriate packages, programs or bits thereof required and address your skill(s). Some pigeonholes may contain: modules at various grade levels with accompanying CML program and test banks. Some may contain referrals to "expert" agencies, i.e., AADAC. Some may refer you to a laser-disc scenario followed by a computer generated quiz assessing your knowledge and propensity to use that knowledge to react appropriately in a given situation. Some empty boxes may hold a challenge for programmers and instructors.

> "It is a common perception that in competency based programs the entire package must be completed before implementation can begin. This is not the case. Once the specific competencies and their interrelationships have been defined, especially in programs where the content is not sequential, delivery can begin as soon as some portions of the work have been completed. This is especially true in instances where a previously existing traditional course is being converted to a mastery learning competency based format. A first cut at providing the best materials available for each pigeonhole from existing sources will at least give the learner access to instruction that is as good

> as previously available, but within an overall structure and performance based assessment scheme. Then, each module can be redesigned incrementally to provide a gradual and ongoing improvement of the entire program."[1]

A sub committee of the Adult Basic Education Committee forms the advisory group for this project and will ensure that a model is provided for all groups collecting or developing materials. All work then will follow guidelines so that it can form a component of the larger product.

> "The competency based assessment measures for each skill will be at the heart of the management structure. By developing a common set of assessment measures across all implementations of the profile, and a carefully specified set of asessment measures for each pigeonhole in the profile, the competency of any student can be certified regardless of the delivery site, the delivery methodology, or the particular implementation of the content (which might be tailored to match individual agendas, especially if the content is integrated into another existing program).
>
> Because the competency based assessment measures for each pigeonhole will be in place prior to the development of instructional resources, developers will have specific specifications for the content necessary in each module."[2]

"The Mediated Instructional Delivery and Management"[3] development model requires the initial specification of these assessment measures which are then provided to instructional developers. Resources that can meet the instructional criteria for addressing these competencies can then be created or collected.

Through this project, administrators and frontline practitioners better understand adult basic education as a process intended to provide adults with the basic skills necessary to learn and function in a self-directed and socially-responsible framework. This process has evolved from a recognition of the needs, characteristics and responsibilities of adult learners. The imminent coalescence of the project components into a flexible, management package with diverse delivery possibilities will facilitate access for adult learners throughout the province.

[1] McArthur, I.A. Draft: ABE Paper, Alberta Vocational Centre, Calgary: 1988

[2] IBID.

[3] McArthur, I.A. Mediated Instructional Delivery and Management. International Videodisc Consortium Working Paper Series, Utah State University, Logan, Utah: 1988

AVANTAGES DES RENCONTRES DE GRAND GROUPE (DE 100 À 500 PERSONNES) AVEC UN PROFESSEUR, DANS DES COURS À DISTANCE.

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Le contexte du projet

Normalement, en enseignement à distance, l'étudiant travaille seul avec le matériel préparé par un établissement d'enseignement. Pourtant la majorité des programmes prévoient des rencontres face à face entre les étudiants et les enseignants, parce que l'interaction augmente la motivation et la persévérance et diminue le taux d'abandon.

Des moyens de mettre l'étudiant et le professeur en communication tout en évitant les inconvénients des déplacements ont été envisagés; par exemple, le tutorat par téléphone ou la téléconférence. Le tutorat par téléphone n'a pas donné les résultats qu'on attendait de lui et la téléconférence a donné de bons résultats, mais elle est onéreuse à organiser.

La rencontre avec un grand nombre d'étudiants (100 à 500) pourrait à la fois diminuer les coûts du face à face et permettre aux étudiants qui y prennent part de profiter quand même des avantages de l'interaction. Toutefois on peut se demander si les rencontres d'un grand nombre de personnes présentent les mêmes avantages pour les étudiants que ceux que l'on retrouve sur le face à face en éducation à distance.

L'objectif de la recherche a donc été d'identifier ces avantages des rencontres de grand groupe.

Puisqu'à notre connaissance, aucune autre recherche n'a déjà été faite sur le grand groupe en éducation à distance, cette recherche est de type exploratoire.

La recension des écrits

Nous avons fait une recension systématique des écrits en éducation à distance.

Les revues Teaching at a Distance (Angleterre), Distance Education (Australie) et les Pedagogical Reports (Suède) ont été systématiquement consultés. Dans la revue Teaching at a Distance, un article d'Arthur J. Cropley et de Thomas N. Kahl (1983), intitulé Distance education and distance learning: some psychological considerations, qui compare les avantages des études indépendantes et des études traditionnelles (face à face), nous a aidée à structurer notre recension des écrits.

Des Pedagogical Reports, ce sont surtout le numéro dix (1977) et treize (1980), rédigés par Agneta Wangdahl, ainsi que le numéro cinq (1976), rédigé par John Bååth qui donnent le plus de renseignements sur les avantages d'organiser des rencontres avec les professeurs, dans des cours à distance.

Un article de John. S. Daniel et de Clément Marquis (1979) intitulé Interaction and Independence: getting the mixture right, indique de nombreux avantages d'organiser des rencontres de groupe, notamment des sessions d'été.

Nous avons également consulté les cahiers de Börge Holmberg intitulés Essentials of Distance Eudcation, (s.d) et Recent Research into Distance Education (1982), notamment les sections sur la communication dans les deux sens, le face à face, le groupe et la motivation.

Les rapports des congrès internationaux de l'International Council for Correspondence Education (ICCE, devenue ICDE, International Council for Distance Education depuis 1982) ont été aussi consultés systématiquement. Du congrès de Brighton (1975), l'article d'Elisabeth Schwenn Ghatala intitulé Individually Guided Motivation, somme Applications to Distance Education, nous a aidée à définir la motivation et à en établir les principes de base.

L'article de Horst Möhle (1976), intitulé New Concepts of Distance Education on University Level in the German Democratic Republic, nous a montré les différences de conception entre les pays de l'Est et les pays de l'Ouest en ce qui concerne le face à face.

Enfin pour l'Amérique du Nord, le choix des articles a été fait à partir de la banque de données ERIC. Parmi les 35 articles que nous avons consultés, celui de Charles E. Feasley (1983), intitulé Serving learners at a Distance, a été d'une grande utilité, puisque ce chercheur américain a passé en revue cent quarante articles sur l'enseignement à distance avant d'écrire le sien.

Cette recension systématique des écrits en éducation à distance nous a permis de connaître les arguments généralement utilisés par les tenants du face à face en éducation à distance pour justifier les rencontres de groupe, mais elle ne nous a fourni aucune donnée sur les avantages des rencontres de grand groupe (de 100 à 500 personnes). Les avantages des rencontres que nous présentons maintenant ne sont donc que pour le petit groupe.

Avantages des rencontres pour la motivation

Selon les auteurs consultés, l'interaction durant les rencontres de groupe a des effets positifs sur la motivation et sur la persévérance des étudiants à distance. Puisqu'elle augmente la motivation des étudiants, l'interaction diminue le taux d'abandon.

L'interaction avec le professeur et avec les autres étudiants permet aux étudiants à distance de donner un meilleur rendement que leurs confrères isolés, ainsi que de se sentir appréciés et intégrés au système. Les étudiants peuvent aussi obtenir du renforcement et du feedback immédiats et adaptés à leurs besoins. Le feedback et le renforcement immédiats augmentent la motivation et diminuent le taux d'abandon.

L'interaction avec les autres étudiants permet aux étudiants à distance de s'entraider et de se faire de nouveaux amis, mais aussi de se comparer entre eux et d'acquérir confiance en soi, tout en constatant qu'ils ne sont pas seuls à éprouver des difficultés.

Avantages des rencontres pour l'acquisition d'habiletés

La participation à des rencontres de groupe, ainsi qu'à des séminaires et des laboratoires, permet aux étudiants à distance d'acquérir des habiletés générales d'ordre cognitif, psychomoteur et affectif. Participer à des rencontres, des séminaires et des laboratoires favorise le développement de la pensée des étudiants à distance en introduisant, illustrant et renforçant des idées et des concepts, en augmentant la stimulation intellectuelle et en obligeant l'étudiant à résoudre différents problèmes.

Surtout par imitation et identification, les étudiants peuvent aussi développer des habiletés spécifiques pour l'apprentissage à distance: autonomie, habileté à organiser le temps de travail et les tâches à accomplir, capacité d'apprendre par la lecture. Ils peuvent aussi acquérir de bonnes habitudes ainsi qu'une méthode de travail: esprit critique, analyse et synthèse, démarche scientifique,... Le rythme imposé par la participation à des rencontres facilite l'acquisition de ces habiletés.

Ces habiletés augmentent la motivation et la persévérance des étudiants à distance et diminuent le taux d'abandon.

Le cadre de référence

Le tableau suivant est une liste des avantages des rencontres de groupe en éducation à distance, bâtie à partir de la recension des écrits. Ces avantages sont par ordre décroissant du nombre de fois qu'ils ont été mentionnés par les auteurs dans les écrits. Tous les avantages des rencontres découlent de l'interaction.

Cette liste d'avantages a été utilisée pour la classification des résultats de la recherche.

Tableau 1

AVANTAGES DES RENCONTRES DE GROUPE

Avantages pour la motivation

- *Feedback* et renforcement immédiats (17)
- Confiance en soi (11)
- Entraide et coopération (8)
- Rencontre de nouveaux amis (8)
- Sentiment d'être apprécié (sentiment d'appartenance, sens de l'intégration)(6)
- Expérience de la compétition (4)

Avantages pour l'acquisition d'habiletés

- Acquisition de bonnes habitudes et d'une méthode de travail (11)

- Développement d'habiletés psychomotrices (9)
- Développement d'habiletés affectives (8)
- Acquisition d'habiletés propres à l'éducation à distance (5)
- Développement de la pensée (5)
- Intégration de la théorie à la pratique (5)
- Développement de la personnalité (3)

L'hypothèse de travail

Puisque la recension des écrits ne nous a fourni aucune donnée sur les avantages du grand groupe, nous avons donc formulé l'hypothèse de travail que les rencontres de grand groupe ont les mêmes avantages que les rencontres de petit groupe.

L'expérimentation

Pour vérifier si les rencontres de grand groupe ont les mêmes avantages que les rencontres de petit groupe, nous avons préparé un questionnaire qui a été intégré à l'examen faisant suite à trois cours publiés dans le quotidien montréalais La Presse, par le Collège Marie-Victorin. Chacun des cours dure généralement cinq semaines, à raison de deux leçons par semaine et s'adresse à tous les lecteurs sans restriction (cours de culture générale).

Pendant la publication du cours,les lecteurs peuvent assister à trois ou cinq rencontres avec l'auteur ou avec une autre personne-ressource.

Le questionnaire comprenait plusieurs questions concernant les variables de la recherche et les variables descriptives. Pour obtenir les avantages des rencontres, nous avons demandé aux personnes qui ont fait l'examen et qui ont assisté aux rencontres de nous donner les raisons pour lesquelles elles avaient assisté à ces rencontres.En ne demandant pas directement les avantages des rencontres, nous voulions éviter que les répondants imaginent des avantages.

Les résultats

Les 119 répondants qui ont assisté aux rencontres des 3 cours ont permis de recueillir 230 énoncés qui ont été répartis en 68 formulations d'énoncés (avantages).

Le tableau suivant présente les avantages les plus fréquemment mentionnés par les répondants (les pourcentages sont calculés sur le nombre total d'énoncés: 230).

Tableau 2

AVANTAGES DES RENCONTRES DE GRAND GROUPE

- Développement de la pensée (34,3%) (A)*
- Feedback et renforcement immédiats (22,9%) (B)
- Intégration de la théorie à la pratique (20,2%) (A)

* A. avantages pour l'acquisition d'habiletés; B. avantages pour la motivation

Les résultats de la recherche montrent que dans des groupes de plus de 100 personnes, il y a très peu d'interaction, comparativement à des petits groupes dont les membres peuvent vivre des relations interpersonnelles. Alors que dans un petit groupe, tous les avantages pour la motivation et pour l'acquisition d'habiletés découlent de l'interaction, la recherche montre que les répondants assistent à des rencontres de grand groupe surtout pour répondre à des besoins individuels.

Ces résultats nous permettent de dire que l'hypothèse de travail n'a pas été confirmée.

Conclusion

Une des difficultés méthodologiques de la recherche a été d'utiliser le terme raisons au lieu du terme avantages dans le questionnaire. Si les répondants avaient pu donner les avantages des rencontres, la nature et l'ordre d'importance des avantages auraient pu être différents et peut-être aurions-nous recueilli plus d'avantages découlant de l'interaction.

Les résultats de cette recherche ont permis, pour la première fois, d'identifier les avantages des rencontres de grand groupe à partir des réponses des apprenants eux-mêmes. Il faut cependant tenir compte que ces réponses proviennent exclusivement des 119 personnes qui ont fait l'examen de l'un ou l'autre de trois cours de culture générale, offerts par le Collège Marie-Victorin, cours non crédités, non inscrits dans un programme et publiés dans un des principaux quotidiens de langue française, La Presse. Cette réserve peut limiter la portée des résultats, mais n'enlève rien à l'intérêt ou à l'utilité pour d'autres recherches du nouveau cadre de référence qui a été développé.

La méthodologie de cette recherche pourrait être utilisée par des chercheurs qui voudraient préciser et compléter la classification des avantages des rencontres d'un grand nombre de personnes, autant en éducation des adultes qu'en éducation à distance (par le journal ou par d'autres médias); autant dans des cours crédités et des programmes que dans des cours de culture générale.

Cette méthodologie pourrait être aussi utiliséepour compléter les résultats obtenus en demandant aux personnes qui assistent à des rencontres d'un grand nombre de personnes de donner les avantages de ces rencontres, plutôt que les raisons (nous sommes en train d'effectuer cette recherche).

INTERNATIONAL CONNECTIONS IN ADULT EDUCATION

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Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to explore the international connections that exist, or that might be encouraged, in the field of adult education. The major focus of the paper is on an analysis of the various regional and international adult education agencies in existence, and the major purpose of each. The intent is to highlight the existence of these agencies, while at the same time be able to conclude what special needs or special groups within adult education need further attention.

Because of the rapid increase in the practice of adult education, as well as the development of graduate programs in this field, and the resultant production of a specialized body of knowledge, there is a great wealth of experience that is being accumulated in adult education. This calls for continuing efforts to be made for effective cross-cultural sharing.

The exchange of knowledge and innovative program ideas, internationally, has a relatively long history in the field of adult education. From elsewhere have come such programs as the Danish Folk Schools, the Workers Education Association and the Mechanics' Institutes. In turn, Canada is known for its Antigonish cooperative Movement, the Women's Institutes, and the Farm Radio Forum. International comparative studies have paralleled the development of international studies in adult education in Canada(1) and elsewhere. A recent study of graduate programs in adult education in Canada(2) speaks of student and faculty interests in international and cross-cultural studies, programs and courses in this area of specialization, the funding of comparative and international studies and research, exchange programs, factors that discourage or prevent greater activity in the international field, related research and publications, career opportunities in international adult education and a number of related issues. The conclusion of this study is that more graduate courses in adult education could offer a greater comparative and international focus in them, there is a core of dedicated and experienced persons who are committed to the study and practice of adult education, internationally, and many theses(3) are being written which add to the body of literature in comparative and international adult education.

From the above, one can see that a great variety of individual and institutional needs require support in adult education. Individual needs would include those of field practitioners (including social changes agents, instructors, supervisors), administrators, researchers and academics. Institutions would include resource centres, universities (both extension and academic programs in adult education), non-government/voluntary agencies and governments. Philosophical issues and program objectives transcend both individual and institutional needs. An expansion of these needs and roles form the basis of the exploratory analysis of this paper.

Some distinction needs to be made between government and non-government support agencies, and those that essentially serve the needs of institutions as compared with practitioners in adult education. An example of the former agency would be UNESCO. Since the establishment of an adult education secretariat in 1947, this agency has contributed to international sharing and cooperation in adult education, supporting governments and others. Since its first international world conference on adult education, held in 1949 in Denmark, UNESCO has organized similar conferences in 1960 in Montreal, 1972 in Tokyo, and 1985 in Paris.

Other international agencies which support and undertake their work through adult education would include regional offices of UNESCO such as the International Institute for Educational Planning in Paris, the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Food and Agricultural Organization(FAO), the World Health Organizations (WHO), UNICEF, the Council of Europe and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. Many other agencies could also be added to this list.

Today, there are upwards of 70 national adult education associations and six regional ones.(4) The regional associations are the Arab Literacy and Adult Education Organization; the Asian and South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education; the Caribbean Regional Council for Adult Education; the European Bureau of Adult Education; the Regional Centre for Adult Education and Functional Literacy in Latin America; and the African Association for Literacy and Adult Education.

To conclude this brief section, it becomes obvious that internationally many agencies are involved in the work of adult education. To varying degrees they offer support and resources to practitioners and others, as well as to government and other agencies. They serve clearing house functions or carry on programs specific to the agency. However, for the purpose of this paper, they are not likely to be classified as 'professional' adult education associations. The following section discusses four such agencies, and examines the specific needs that each attempts to fulfill in the field of adult education.

"Professional" Associations in Adult Education

1. The International Congress of University Adult Education(ICUAE-1960) was formed shortly after the UNESCO conference in 1960. Its purpose is to develop and maintain communication and cooperation among university adult educationists around the world. These include individuals who are involved or interested in: programs to prepare or train educators of adults; research pertaining to adults as learners; adult and continuing education; educational programs and services designed for and delivered to adults through university extension, extramural studies and the like. The ICUAE has Consultative Status to UNESCO. It attempts to provide a network which is representative of diverse cultures and geographical areas of the world. Its membership is open to any university which provides a program of adult education or to any non-profit or public institution or organization whose primary function is service to or advancement of university adult education. It produces the International Journal of University Adult Education.

2. The International Council for Adult Education (ICAE-1973), the most notable of international non-government organizations (NGO) has organized three significant international NGO events: Dar es Salaam, 1976, Paris, 1982, and Buenos Aires in 1985. It perceives the role of adult education to be one of consciousness raising, information sharing, self-fulfillment, empowerment, creating alternative visions, and building linkages to social moments. It is involved in a number of action programs in primary health care, the use of new technology, peace networking, literacy, popular theatre and participatory research. Its overall purpose is one of linking people to people, strengthening associations, advocacy and building the movement of adult education. Primarily, its membership includes the various national and regional associations around theworld. It publishes the journal Convergence, as well as a variety of reports, research studies, and other materials relating to its work.

3. The International League for Social Commitment in Adult Education (ILSCAE-1984) encourages all those involved in adult education to work with the poor, the oppressed and politically powerless in bringing about social, political, economic and cultural change, as well as promoting cross-cultural communication and understanding. Its members are concerned individuals, and it publishes the ILSCAE-Newsletter.

4. The Commonwealth Association for the Education-and Training of Adults (CAETA-1987) is an independent NGO which brings together both individuals and organizations within the Commonwealth concerned with the education and training of adults. It seeks to enhance the competence and professional understanding of its members; to improve the status of adult education in all its aspects; to link together practitioners in different parts of the Commonwealth; and to direct the resources of all forms of education for adults towards national goals of development. While its membership are individuals, national organizations within the Commonwealth countries are invited into associate membership. It publishes the CAETA Newsletter.

Conclusion

The presentation accompanying this paper elaborates on the functions and membership of the above organizations, and makes an initial attempt to develop an international organizational typology. Although still somewhat tentative, this overview concludes that government interests in adult education, the interests of NGO (as well as government based) national and regional adult education associations and universities are being reasonably well met at the international level. Increasingly, attention is being given to the needs of practitioners in the front-line field of adult education, especially when their needs are linked to local, regional and national resources and agencies, and sometimes to universities.

The above refers to the needs of policy-makers, implementers of policy, and front-line workers. In addition, one must examine the needs of those involved in adult education research, those whose primary task is to extend the body of knowledge in this field, as well as the accompanying function of post-secondary education in adult education. For the moment one might question whether in fact the needs of such academics researchers are being met through formal international networks. There is some evidence of this(5) but more research is required in this area. Further research is also required to examine organizational issues at the international levels, as well the effectiveness of these international connections in adult education.

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CONNAISSANCE DU FONCTIONNEMENT INTELLECTUEL ET AFFECTIF DE L'ADULTE COMME BASE DE L'INTERVENTION EDUCATIVE DANS LES MUSEES

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Les autorités gouvernementales demandent maintenant aux musées de jouer un rôle éducatif (Herbert, 1981; Vaugeois, 1979) et les muséologues sont eux-mêmes d'accord pour ajouter une fonction éducative aux fonctions traditionnelles du musée (Pisculin, 1980; Swauger, 1980).

Pensant à l'éducation de la population, les muséologues distinguent leur clientèle scolaire ou enfantine de leur clientèle adulte et considérant cette dernière, ils croient que le musée doit contribuer à son développement culturel par des activités ponctuelles ou par des programmes fondés sur ses collections (Collins, 1981; Hansen, 1984; Knox, 1981; Zetterberg, 1970).

Le musée est donc un endroit d'intervention pour l'andragogue (Allen, 1981; Hiemstra, 1981, Knowles, 1981, Knox, 1981) et sa façon d'y agir doit correspondre aux caractéristiques et aux exigences de cette institution (Dufresne-Tassé, 1986).

Inutile de dire que le rôle de l'andragogue muséal n'a pas encore été défini, bien que certains spécialistes de l'éducation des adultes se soient penchés sur l'éducation muséale (Dufresne-Tassé, 1986).

Cette absence de définition n'empêche pas les directeurs de musée d'adresser de multiples demandes à leur responsable de l'éducation des adultes, la plupart inspirées par des préoccupations budgétaires ou par le désir d'établir la renommée de leur institution.

Si on en croit les éducateurs des plus grands musées nord américains réunis l'automne dernier à Toronto pour un séminaire organisé par l'"International Laboratory for Visitor Studies", la réponse à ces demandes est un musée-endroit-d'apprentissage. Les exhibits offerts à la population devraient susciter le plus grand nombre possible d'apprentissage et ces apprentissages devraient être identifiables ou amener des changements perceptibles chez le visiteur.

Pour obtenir ce résultat, ces éducateurs étaient d'avis qu'il faut connaître le fonctionnement du visiteur, c'est-à-dire, sa façon d'apprendre au musée.

Pour notre part, nous croyons qu'il est utile de connaître ce fonctionnement et nous avons réalisé une série de travaux sur le sujet, mais nous croyons que cette connaissance ne suffit pas pour construire des exhibits à caractère éducatif.

Afin de justifier cette position, nous considérerons d'abord les raisons qui amènent un adulte au musée, puis nous présenterons des données issues de nos propres recherches sur le fonctionnement du visiteur et sur son apprentissage. Enfin nous établirons pourquoi ces données sont insuffisantes pour préparer des exhibits éducatifs.

POURQUOI L'ADULTE VA-T-IL AU MUSEE?

L'ICOM termine sa description du musée en précisant que celui-ci est un endroit de délectation. Faisant écho à cette description, Henry Sears, dans le projet de restructuration qu'il signe en 1976 pour le Royal Ontario Museum dit que le musée est une institution où l'on tente d'éduquer en divertissant (p. 17) ou au moyen d'expériences esthétiques (p. 18).

Même s'il y apprend beaucoup de choses, l'adulte n'assimile probablement donc pas le musée à l'école et sa façon d'agir et d'apprendre au musée diffère probablement profondément de sa façon d'agir et d'apprendre à l'école.

QUEL EST LE FONCTIONNEMENT PSYCHOLOGIQUE DU VISITEUR?

Depuis 1985, à l'Université de Montréal, nous recueillons des données sur le fonctionnement psychologique du visiteur de musée. Ces données proviennent des deux sources suivantes.

a) De compte-rendus de visite. Ces compte-rendus, au nombre de 90 ont été rédigés à l'issue de la visite de musées de la région montréalaise. Parmi ces musées figurent: le Musée des Beaux-Arts de Montréal, le Musée McCord, les serres du Jardin Botanique de Montréal et des lieux muséaux: le Vieux Montréal et la Maison des Soeurs Grises de Montréal.

b) Les verbalisations spontanées de 45 personnes durant leur visite d'une exposition de coquillages. Cette exposition avait été organisée dans un musée de sciences naturelles, le Musée Georges Préfontaine. Les verbalisations étaient enregistrées sur bande magnétique. La visite terminée, un chercheur de notre groupe rencontrait chaque visiteur durant environ une heure. Au début de la rencontre, il lui demandait de travailler à partir d'un instrument projectif puis commençait avec lui une entrevue ouverte qui se terminait sur des questions précises. Enfin, il offrait au visiteur de renconter un biologiste, afin de poser à celui-ci toutes les questions qu'il jugeait pertinent de lui adresser.

Les données ainsi recueillies permettent de croire que le visiteur adulte s'intéresse peu aux dates ou aux chiffres qu'on lui présente au musée, mais que, par contre, il se gorge littéralement d'observations, d'observations visuelles surtout, et qu'il se livre à une activité imaginaire et affective qui soutient et stimule sa production intellectuelle. Enfin, il réfléchit sur lui-même et sur le monde qui l'entoure, trouve un sens nouveau à ce qu'il observe ou à des expériences qu'il a vécues, élabore des projets ou même des plans pour sa vie privée ou pour sa vie professionnelle.

L'apprentissage est présent dans ce fonctionnement, mais il se perd dans l'expérience du visiteur qui constitue, comme on vient de le voir, un véritable tissu d'observations, d'activités émotives, imaginaires et intellectuelles. Pour comprendre l'apprentissage du visiteur, il faut donc saisir son expérience et établir comment il s'insère dans cette dernière.

Afin de satisfaire à cette exigence, nous avons jusqu'à maintenant abordé l'expérience du visiteur sous les trois angles suivants.

1. Nous avons décrit les composantes de l'expérience du visiteur, les formes sous lesquelles elle se présente et leur évolution avec le temps passé au musée.

2. Nous avons établi comment le visiteur réussit à donner un contexte aux objets qu'il observe, "construisant" ainsi pour lui-même ces objets, se les appropriant et les utilisant comme stimulant de ses réflexions.

3. Nous avons étudié comment naissent les questions du visiteur, les liens qu'elles entretiennent avec le reste de son fonctionnement et avec son apprentissage.

Dans un avenir prochain, nous investiguerons l'apprentissage lui-même et ses liens avec le reste de l'expérience du visiteur.

EST-IL SUFFISANT DE CONNAITRE LE FONCTIONNEMENT DU VISITEUR?

Nous ne croyons pas que des données comme celles que nous venons d'évoquer constituent à elles seules un guide suffisant à la production d'exhibits éducatifs car les considérant, on ne peut s'empêcher de dire: voilà la façon dont fonctionne spontanément le visiteur, mais est-ce l'idéal? Est-ce la façon dont il devrait fonctionner? L'éducateur recherche toujours en effet une forme quelconque d'excellence. Il faut donc préciser cette forme d'excellence, cet objectif.

Jusqu'à maintenant, on a, la plupart du temps, considéré qu'une visite de musée idéale est celle qui répond aux besoins du visiteur. Nous suggérons plutôt que ce soit une visite qui engendre des bénéfices. En d'autres termes, je propose que l'on change d'indicateur, que l'on utilise les BENEFICES D'UNE VISITE plutôt que les BESOINS DU VISITEUR comme indice d'une visite réussie. Les bénéfices me semblent en effet un indice plus direct de ce que rapporte un moment passé au musée, en d'autres termes, de ce que devrait être ce moment pour le visiteur.

Dans cette optique, le but de l'éducation muséale est de produire des exhibits qui font dire au visiteur qu'il sort enrichi du musée.

Ayant déterminé ce que devrait rapporter une visite au musée, il reste à savoir s'il existe des moyens, des outils, de procédés pour atteindre ce but et, si oui, quelle est leur valeur?

Enfin, connaissant le but à atteindre et la façon d'y arriver, il faut se demander comment cette préoccupation du visiteur et de son fonctionnement s'intègre avec les autres préoccupations des muséologues de collectionner, de conserver et de mettre en valeur les objets qu'ils possèdent.

A l'issue de cet exposé, la connaissance du fonctionnement du visiteur apparaît certes comme l'élément central de l'éducation muséale, élément en l'absence duquel les buts que l'on veut atteindre et les moyens que l'on se donne ont peu de sens. Mais, quelque centrale qu'elle puisse être, cette connaissance ne saurait à elle seule garantir l'élaboration d'exhibits éducatifs.

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THE HUMAN SERVICE WORKER AS ADULT EDUCATOR: A TRAINING CHALLENGE

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The Issue

Human service workers, including social workers, probation officers and people in the medical professions, have increasingly come to recognize that many aspects of their practice involve the facilitation of adult learning. Nursing has provided important leadership through the developments in the field of Patient Education (Redman, 1981; Squyres, 1980). Social Work has done a good deal in the area of Family Life Education (Power, 1986), and community workers have contributed to our understanding of Community Education (Day, 1987; Hiemstra, 1982). Some of these human service professionals have pursued formal studies in adult education, but the majority have either had no preparation for their teaching roles, or have initiated modest self-directed learning projects to improve their understanding of the field of adult education. There are many other in the Human Services who have never consciously thought of themselves as teachers.

This paper describes a process which was followed in order to systematically document the competencies that human service workers need in order to effectively facilitate adult learning. In turn, this competency profile forms the basis of a set of instructional resources that can be used to help such professionals to improve their skills in the facilitation of adult learning.

The Project

This project developed from the need to develop a course that would give undergraduate social work students an understanding of the types of learners and teaching roles that they would be likely to encounter in their practice, and some skills with which to tackle these challenges. Three other purposes were related to this central thrust: the need to make the course available for delivery at a distance as well as in a more conventional classroom format, the need to develop a continuing education training resource that would address the same topic, and finally, the need to develop a framework for a textbook that could be used in conjunction with either pre-service or continuing professional education.

The Process

A process was developed that passed through several stages in order to achieve the various goals that have been identified. A literature search was conducted in order to cull out a preliminary outline of potential teaching competencies for human service workers (ASTD, 1983; Rossman & Bunning, 1978), a DACUM (Adams 1975) session was held with experienced front-line human service professionals in order to revise the draft profile, and course and workshop outlines were developed on the basis of the teaching competencies profile (Resource A.). A range of instructional resources were then created in order to provide support for these designs.

The Product

A one semester course Educational Strategies in Social Work, (Resource B) was designed on the basis of the competency profile, together with a prospectus for a two-day professional development workshop (Resource C), which is designed to be sufficiently generic that it can meet the needs of people from a range of human service professions.

One of the key challenges for this project has already been noted. The reality that many human service workers, while they are engaged in instruction and the facilitation of learning with a wide range of individuals and groups, have not perceived that they are teaching. Rather, they may conceive themselves as counselling, engaging in therapy, setting limits or offering advice. This issue of the self-image of some practitioners added significantly to the difficulty of tapping their experience in order to develop an initial profile of teaching competencies. Thus, for the DACUM session it was necessary to locate practitioners who already recognized that much of their practice involved teaching. The limited understanding of the human service professional as a teacher of adults also has important implications for the design of learning experiences that address this topic, and for the marketing of books and workshops that aspire to attract practitioners to voluntarily develop their teaching skills. One's motivation to learn about teaching is sharply curtailed if one has never considered oneself to be a teacher.

Three teaching resources were developed to help people in the human services to achieve this perceptual shift. First was a print handout (Resource D) that distinguished formal and informal teaching as these tend to emerge in human service practice. Five potential targets for human service teaching were identified.

1. Teaching individual service consumers
2. Teaching families and other groups of learners
3. Public and community education
4. Teaching colleagues in one's own or allied professions
5. Managing one's own continuing professional development.

Practice examples of formal and informal teaching were provided for each of these teaching targets.

The second instructional resource (Resource E) consists of four videotaped episodes that depict human service workers teaching respectively with: an individual, an informal learning group, managing a public education campaign and running a professional development workshop. Initial field trials of this material demonstrated that the videotaped vignettes have a particularly important impact in helping practitioners to recognize that they engage in teaching with a variety of target learners.

The final aid that is used to help practitioners to recognize their teaching acts is an audiotape of interviews with workers who have been practicing from two to ten years in which they discuss the way in which they came to recognize their role as teachers and their current projects in helping adults to learn. (Resource F.) Again, these materials were positively reviewed by those who participate in the initial field trial.

To date the course materials have been delivered on one occasion in a distance education format and this experience has been carefully evaluated by an instructional design team prior to revision of the course design and the materials. Similarly there has been one professional development workshop held to introduce social workers to the notion of teaching as an integral part of practice and to review some of the concepts and skills associated with the effective promotion of adult learning.

Implications and Conclusions

The following are the impressionistic views of the author that have developed out of the management of this curriculum development project and from other practice experiences in both adult education and social work.

1. Many facets of Human Service Practice involve formal and informal teaching. The teaching/learning paradigm is familiar to learners when they enter pre-professional training in the Human Services and it can be a useful way to help them to conceptualize the purpose and process of some of their professional interventions. Teaching-as-Practice compliments the

current concern with consumer empowerment (Gartner, Greer & Reissman, 1979), mutual aid (Powell, 1987), and prevention (Epp, 1987).

2. Those practitioners who are most committed to other conceptions of their practice (e.g. caring, counselling or therapy) may be those who have the greatest difficulty re-formulating their perspective in order to appreciate some of the informal and implicit teaching that they engage in. Sarason (1972) neatly addressed an aspect of this problem when he observed that a professional rarely defines a problem in terms that do not require his presence for its solution.

3. If consumers can be thought of as learners, and to some extent as the producers of their own learning, then the Human Service professional is in a position to learn from consumers in the course of facilitating their learning. (Borkman, 1976; Maluccio, 1979).

4. Enabling the Human Service professional to learn more about teaching and learning with adults gives them awareness and skills that they can also use to improve the management of their own continuing learning. (Farquharson, 1983).

5. The demands of developing courses for Distance Education can conspicuously improve the manner in which they are designed and delivered on a face-to-face basis in the classroom or in professional development workshops (Farquharson, 1986).

6. Given the expense of developing high quality instructional resources (e.g. broadcast videotape) for credit courses, one should also plan from the outset for the way in which these materials might be used to enhance continuing professional development.

7. Several people who participated in the pilot run of the credit course noted that they would like to have covered the material earlier in their professional training. In their view, this experience significantly enhanced their understanding of their own learning processes, and they felt that this would have helped them to obtain greater advantage of some of their earlier courses. This accords with the view of those who have written about the positive effects that accrue to the learner who focuses on the learning process (Smith, 1982).

A final conclusion is that teaching and learning are themes that can potentially provide an important link between adult educators and others who work in the human services, and could provide an important focus for future inter-disciplinary teamwork.

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INTEGRATED COMMUNITY-BASED HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN THE REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES

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INTRODUCTION

In 1985 a 5-year Pilot Project for Integrated Community-Based Human Resource Development began in the Philippines, funded by the Canadian International Development Agency and managed by the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) in Bangkok. In the Philippines the field work was jointly administered by the SEAMEO Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology (INNOTECH), the SEAMEO Regional Centre for Graduate Study and Research in Agriculture (SEARCA), and the SEAMEO Regional Tropical Medicine and Public Health Project (TROPMED). The Pilot Project consists of 5 overlapping phases: 1. Inventorying, Surveying and Co-operative Planning; 2. Training, 3. Conducting Seminars to Develop Special Community Development Skills and Planning of Individual Programmes; 4. Implementing Planned Programs; and 5. Evaluating. Although communities in Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand were included in the project, each country's efforts were managed nationally. This paper deals with the Philippine experience based on the author's 11-month direct involvement as project consultant and subsequent correspondence with project personnel. In examining the Project, attention will be given to (a) definitions of terms, (b) a selected literature review, (c) an account of some of the author's experiences in the Project, and (d) tentative conclusions.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Pilot Project indicates that CIA and SEAMEO hope this effort will be a successful demonstration that will be replicated in other underdeveloped communities in the cooperating countries. **Integrated** is intended to ensure that the work will be supported by each of the ministries and departments represented on the national steering committees, which are composed of representatives from all ministries or departments that are believed to have potential roles to play in educating and assisting the villagers. **Community-Based** expresses a determination to involve the villagers themselves in the identification of their own felt educational needs and a willingness to resist the tendency to deal with the needs ascribed by external experts. **Human Resource** reflects a determination of the project designers to focus on the inhabitants of the villages rather than on their natural or altered physical environment or on any single aspect of family and community living. **Development** was regarded as a value-laden rather than as a value-free process, necessitating the participation of the villagers in the identification of their problems, the proposal of solutions, the selection of acceptable resources, the planning of educational programs, and the assessment of progress.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The project operation was conducted giving consideration to both Philippine and non-Philippine experience.

SEARCA staff had carried out "social laboratory" projects for nearly a decade, based on the assumption that community development projects intended to foster the mobilization of human resources to solve rural community problems are ideal learning situations for university faculty and students who themselves aspire to work in other development projects. In each case a Village Development Committee composed of the village head, head teacher of the village school and other influential persons in the community, and a Village Advisory Council composed of the municipal mayor, municipal health officer municipal agricultural officer, and others who could be helpful to the village were established. After reviewing the work of 9 social laboratories, the following conclusions were reached: (1) village human resource development is a slow, educational, socio-economic, cultural and political process requiring 5 to 10 years, patience and perseverance; (2) the main role of the development technician should be to create awareness, generate interest, and heighten aspirations by showing success stories, pointing out different possibilities and options, but leaving the final decisions to the villagers; (3) the level of government assistance ought not be greater than can reasonably be expected to be provided for similar communities; (4) strategies and approaches should be matched to the specific target clientele; and (5) practices developed at research institutes or experiment stations are often inapplicable to village communities (Bernardo, 1987).

Similar, though not identical, development activities had been carried out in the Philippines by SEARCA and INNOTECH under a variety of names, such as Farm and Home Development, DELSILIFE, Community Development or Agricultural Education Outreach, possibly reflecting changing emphases of funding sources more than changes in the underlying philosophy or strategies employed.

From a non-Philippine perspective Kidd and Colletta (1980) noted that some external agents may be manipulating the indigenous culture for ends that serve the interests of the agents more than those of the community and noted that this problem can best be addressed by ensuring popular control over the process.

Niehoff (1977), after examining numerous development programs, concluded that the role of literacy in development is frequently overestimated. Possibly its greatest value is its convenience for development workers who are trying to put a message across to the villagers they want to influence. He notes that development workers may be so dependent upon the written word that they feel stymied when trying to work with illiterates.

Nurick (1984) states that middle class educators suffer from the misconception that everyone finds work interesting in itself, when, in fact, for the lower working class there are few satisfactions and working is simply a necessity, not a joy. North American attitudes toward work may lead some development workers to draw inappropriate and irrelevant comparisons as they deal with work and employment in developing countries.

Enthusiasts for nonformal education are chastised in Bock and Papagiannis's book that presents a critical assessment of NFE policy, research and practice. They note that it is neither a panacea for the problems of rural development nor a process that is equal to the claims that have been made for it. Bock and Papagiannis state ". . . if nonformal programs are successful in producing more competent, satisfied farmers and fishers, they are likely to defuse legitimate social discontent, and inhibit the development of concerted demand for social and economic restructuring" (1983a: 12).

Bock encourages the analysis of NFE using two theoretical observations: (1) the founding and growth of educational institutions is a response to both contextual and internal pressures and supports a complex alloction and legitimation function, quite apart from whether individuals are actually effectively trained or socialized; and (2) education has effects not only because of its internal pedagogical capacity to transform students' competencies, but also because of its capacity to transform their future status and prospects (Bock, 1983:182). Without these considerations the planning, execution and evaluation of NFE are likely to be superficial.

Colletta and Todd (1983) charge that development efforts have largely failed to reach the 800 million poorest of the poor and have not succeeded in achieving an equitable distribution of resources. While they may raise consciousness and set the sociopsychological climate for development, they have not been shown to be effective instruments for sustained and self-sustaining economic development. They urge the involvement of local people, particularly women, children and minority groups, in the process of development as active agents striving to strengthen human resources. Further, they doubt that the trickle-down theory of extension work that dominates North American practice is capable of making any significant impact on the lives of the poorest of the poor.

Evans muses that although NFE seemed to offer the possibility of dealing with problems of equity, increasing access to education, promoting effective participation by citizens in national development, decreasing the distance between the worlds of education and work, and promoting the development of rural areas, it has slipped into person-centred strategies that do not usually involve structural changes in the society. He concludes that NFE is trapped in the same webs of societal constraints as formal education and is further handicapped by having fewer resources, lower status, and power to certify its products.

"Nonformal education has few prospects for delivering on the promises of substantial reform of either the educational system or the social and political structure of which it is a part" (Evans, 1983: 274).

Bock and Papagiannis (1983b) observed that NFE has not fulfilled its early promise because, like schooling, NFE intervention strategies have been grounded on incorrect assumptions about the role of education in the development process. NFE programs are usually coopted by the state and employed as instruments of regime legitimation and for the extension of state authority. Thus, NFE programs become institutionalized as educational diversification strategies to serve regime interests at the expense of their idealistic initial goals of raising the critical consciousness and developing the self-reliance of their low-power target audience (1983b:338-339).

With this background the author undertook an assignment as a consultant to the Pilot Project on Integrated Community-Based Human Development in the Philippines.

A PHILIPPINE EXPERIENCE

The first tasks for the consultant were assisting in the identification and training of village development service teams (VDST) consisting of seconded (80 to 100% of time) local representatives of various ministries (e.g., Agriculture and Food, Education Culture and Sports, Health, Agrarian Reform) and an assistant team leader chosen at a community meeting. After 1989 the assistant team leader will be the local person who will be expected to have the knowledge necessary to take optimal advantage of the government departments and programs and will be able to call upon such resources with facility.

It was necessary to deal with the tensions between the Bangkok-based CIDA consultants, the field staff of the three Philippine-based SEAMEO centres and the VDSTs. **Macroplans** -- so labeled because they were founded on statistical data which purportedly defined important dimensions of the four pilot communities even though villagers had minimal involvement in their collection and analysis -- had to be refined into **microplans** based on the active involvement of villagers and their own VDST in problem analysis and in the search for educational solutions. Illiteracy, a problem identified in the macroplan, was not included in the microplan. The sanitary disposal of human wastes, an activity that had not been a felt need despite NFE programs on that topic for at least 70 years, was not a felt need, despite intestinal parasite infestation among the invariably barefoot children of the villages. Previous unhappy experience with government-stimulated efforts to establish cooperatives presented hurdles for the team as it explored modes of organization that might increase the villages' capacity to deal with municipal, provincial and the national government. Differences of interpretation of facts between the team, with its technically trained resources, and the villagers abounded.

TENTATIVE CONCLUSIONS

Tentative conclusions reached at this point include the following: (1) Factual data are interpreted in vastly different ways by villagers and technically trained nonformal educators; (2) Interdepartmental cooperation is possible if collaboration is subsidized by project funds; (3) Deferential and acquiescent behavior by villagers obstructs authentic participation by the poor; (4) Development cannot proceed effectively over the short run, 3-5 years, without the provision of accessible credit for soundly based income generating projects that address felt needs in fiscally responsible ways and (5) Human resource development programs that successfully increase the power of individuals and groups to analyse problems and choose effective action are potentially conducive to shifts in policital power.

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EDUCATION A DISTANCE ET DEVELOPPEMENT DE LA COMMUNAUTE EN COLOMBIE

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Résumé Cette recherche sur le terrain est exploratoire et qualitative. L'intention est d'observer l'importance du caractère endogène à travers quelques institutions qui oeuvrent présentement dans le domaine de l'enseignement à distance en Colombie.

Introduction La Colombie est citée fréquemment dans la littérature pour ses réalisations dans le domaine de l'éducation à distance. Le Plan de développement "Cambio Con Equidad" (1983-86) témoigne de l'importance que le gouvernement Betancur a accordé à cette forme d'enseignement qui est devenue un des programmes majeurs de ce projet de société. Notre intention est d'apprécier l'originalité du modèle colombien d'enseignement à distance alors que celui-ci a vécu une expansion sans précédent dans un contexte national qui ne s'apparente pas à celui d'un pays industrialisé. L'étude apporte des éléments de réponse à la question que se posait Rumble sur l'apparition de modèles alternatifs d'enseignement à distance en Amérique latine: "There is some doubt whether a distance teaching system based on the British Open University model is the most appropriate one for Latin America" (1985, p. 249).

Cadre conceptuel Dans la poursuite de la qualité de la communication éducative à distance, Holmberg contribue à l'approfondissement du domaine en proposant la théorie suivant laquelle l'éducation à distance revêt les caractéristiques d'une méthode de conversation guidée (1981, pp. 30-31). Il existe une conversation permanente entre les auteurs et les étudiants, simulée par l'interaction de ces derniers avec les cours préimprimés et authentique grâce aux commentaires écrits et/ou verbalisés des tuteurs. La théorie de Holmberg a des implications à tous les niveaux de la structure de l'éducation à distance et permet une meilleure interprétation des modèles organisationnels existants dans la littérature. Keegan (1986) examine le secteur formel de l'éducation à distance et conclut que l'administration des systèmes qui le composent se rapproche davantage de la théorie administrative générale que de l'administration des systèmes conventionnels d'éducation. Kaye et Rumble (1981) se sont intéressés aux théories de l'organisation des systèmes et ont appliqué celles-ci à la structure organisationnelle de l'éducation à distance; le modèle ainsi obtenu comprend quatre sous-systèmes qui sont identifiés comme suit:

1. Le sous-système 1 des cours incluant la création, la production et la distribution des cours ainsi que le matériel et les activités d'apprentissage.
2. Le sous-système 2 des étudiants composé des procédures d'admission, de l'attribution d'un tuteur, de l'apprentissage, de l'évaluation des connaissances et de la délivrance des diplômes.
3. Le sous-système 3 de la logistique qui fait appel à des ressources humaines, financières et matérielles ainsi que du domaine de l'information.
4. Le sous-système 4 de la prise de décision et contrôle. (Keegan, p. 198)

Le modèle pour profil institutionnel décrit par Harry (Kaye & Rumble, pp. 293-294) ainsi que l'approche planifiée suggérée par Holmberg (pp. 34-37) nous ont inspirés pour l'établissement d'une grille d'observation dont les paramètres constituent des catégories prédéterminées pour faciliter l'analyse subséquente (Tableau 1).

Tableau 1

Grille d'observation pour profil institutionnel

I CARACTERISTIQUES DU SYSTEME D'EDUCATION A DISTANCE

Paramètres	Variables	Sources d'information & indicateurs
ORIGINES	Date de création de l'institution	Bailleurs de fonds
	Raisons de son établissement	Contexte historique, besoins en éducation, système éducatif traditionnel, fondements théoriques à la base du projet
	Objectifs généraux et spécifiques (à court et à long terme)	Déclarations politiques officielles, syllabus existant, textes d'examens, ouvrages de base, opinions exprimées par d'anciens et de futurs étudiants, analyse des demandes émanant de l'administration, de l'industrie, analyse des opinions des praticiens exerçant dans le domaine de l'éducation à distance, moyens de communication de masse à des fins publicitaires
	Date des premières inscriptions	
ETUDIANTS	Nombre d'inscrits (le plus récent)	
	Habiletés et compétences d'après les antécédents personnels	Age, expérience professionnelle et sociale, études et aptitudes développées, milieu, climat familial, comportements en société, attitudes des étudiants face aux études théoriques, à la méthodologie préconisée, motivation (raisons de promotion, traditions familiales, auto-actualisation)
	Critères d'admission	
COURS	Programmes de cours offerts au total	Niveaux, éventail des matières, rythme, cadence, horaires
	Langue utilisée	
	Délivrance de certificats, de diplômes	Système d'attribution d'équivalences
MEDIA & METHODES	Matériel et équipement	
	a) quantité	Listes d'inventaires (sorte et nombre)
	b) qualité	Présentation (graphique, exercices de contrôle des connaissances, travaux, langage, style, clarté du texte) Contenu (pertinence des faits, ambiguïtés, simplifications, généralisations, équilibre entre la matière et le traitement, existence de biais, opinions et échanges de vues sollicités, harmonie entre le contenu théorique et les exercices pratiques pour développer les habiletés) Solidité, durabilité des documents
	Méthodes d'apprentissage	Impression du contact direct, progression séquentielle logique, processus de résolution de problèmes versus mémorisation
II LES COURS ET LEUR SOUS-SYSTEME		
CREATION	Systèmes adoptés pour la rédaction des cours	Nombre de rédacteurs, de réviseurs techniques, de conseillers pédagogiques; consultations préliminaires, guides à l'usage des auteurs des cours, modalités de coopération au sein de l'équipe de travail
PRODUCTION & DISTRIBUTION:		
DOCUMENTS IMPRIMES	Conception et direction de la publication	Personnel de l'équipe de production, temps de préparation, installations d'impression, nombre de publications d'accompagnement
	Méthode de distribution	Rapidité d'acheminement, entreposage
DOCUMENTS SONORES & VISUELS	Création et transmission de programmes de radio, de télévision	Personnel de l'équipe de production, temps de préparation, qualité de la diffusion, accessibilité, entreposage
	Création et distribution d'autres moyens audio-visuels, de trousses de travaux pratiques	

Plan d'observation L'approche qualitative que nous avons adoptée fait écho à une série d'articles récents (Morgan, 1984), (Minnis, 1985) qui visent à promouvoir ce type de recherche en éducation à distance. Entre le 11 mai et le 2 juin 1987, 45 répondants ont été interviewés dans leur lieu de travail et parmi eux on compte 23 hommes et 22 femmes. Tous sont des adultes de nationalité colombienne qui exercent une activité au moment de l'entrevue. Le tableau 2 fournit la distribution de ces répondants par institution selon le sexe et suivant leur occupation. Des cinq institutions représentées, seule ACPO (Acción Cultural Popular) relève du secteur d'éducation non formelle avec ses écoles radiophoniques à vocation rurale; les quatre autres sont des établissements d'enseignement supérieur qui dispensent une éducation formelle. Parmi ces derniers, trois sont des universités privées - Santo Tomas, Javeriana et Sabana - alors qu'Unisur est une université publique. Le choix de l'échantillon s'est opéré suivant la disponibilité et l'accessibilité des institutions et de leurs répondants. L'existence d'un seul chercheur sur le terrain ainsi que la limite temporelle du stage d'observation à l'étranger expliquent l'impossibilité de rejoindre un plus grand nombre d'étudiants et de tuteurs à leurs domiciles respectifs. Enfin, la proximité des universités privées à Bogotá tout comme l'obtention rapide d'entrevues ont favorisé la concentration

III LES ETUDIANTS ET LEUR SOUS-SYSTEME		
ADMINISTRATION		
	Annonce des cours	
	Inscription, frais de scolarité	
	Conservation des dossiers	
SOUTIEN A L'APPRENTISSAGE		
	Centres d'étude, laboratoires, bibliothèques	
EVALUATION FORMATIVE & SOMMATIVE		
	Formes de contact	Rencontres individuelles avec le conseiller dans les centres locaux, séminaires de groupe, groupes d'études autonomes, stages, séances d'information et d'orientation, rencontres occasionnelles avec d'autres étudiants, journées d'accueil à l'institution centrale, consultations au domicile du conseiller et/ou à son lieu de travail, conversations téléphoniques avec le responsable pédagogique, correspondance avec le correcteur, échanges enregistrés, journaux étudiants
	Correction des travaux pour chaque unité	Equilibre entre évaluation formative et sommative
	Examens finaux	
IV ORGANISATION, ADMINISTRATION, PLANIFICATION ET FINANCEMENT		
POUVOIRS ADMINISTRATIFS		
	Conseils d'administration, directeurs	Organigramme, descriptions de tâches, répartition des rôles
CONTROLE	Contrôle académique	Fréquence et efficacité des formes de contact, taux d'abandons
	Contrôle de la qualité	Rétroaction, information en retour ("developmental testing"), attitude des étudiants, formation des agents
	Evaluation et recherche institutionnelle	
RESSOURCES		
FINANCEMENT	Répartition des coûts (fixes et variables)	Budget, salaires, renouvellement du matériel pédagogique, etc.
PERSONNEL		
	Nombre dans chaque catégorie	Statut (permanent, temps partiel, contractuel, à l'heure)
	Distribution	Répartition territoriale
	Formation	Type et fréquence, modalités
LOCAUX	Adéquation	Grandeur, quantité, situation géographique, équipement (plans, listes d'inventaires)
	Disponibilité	Sorte, quantité, période (calendrier des activités, salles réservées)

Tableau 2

Distribution des répondants par institution, selon le sexe et suivant leur occupation.

	Institutions d'enseignement à distance									
	ACPO		SANTO TOMAS		JAVERIANA		SABANA		UNISUR	
Sexe	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
Administrateurs*	6	1	3		2	1	1	1		
Coordonnateurs	1	2	3	2		1		3		
Conseillers pédagogiques	1		2	1	1					1
Educateurs	1		1	3		1				
Etudiants à distance	1			5						

*Le masculin comprend aussi le féminin.

du chercheur dans ce secteur d'activité au détriment de celui des universités publiques. Les entrevues étaient généralement sur une base individuelle, quelques-unes seulement se déroulèrent en groupe. Après avoir établi un climat de confiance en garantissant l'anonymat à mon interlocuteur, je vérifiais auprès de lui si l'usage du magnétophone risquait de l'indisposer. Les répondants, dans leur majorité, se sont tous montrés favorables et coopératifs. Lorsque la nature de l'échange se prêtait plus difficilement à l'emploi du magnétophone, je prenais alors des notes. L'entrevue était non directive au départ cependant il m'arrivait de guider le répondant vers des éléments spécifiques de la grille d'observation lorsque je le jugeais nécessaire. Toutes les références des répondants étaient inscrites dans le journal de bord qui comprenait également les commentaires de l'observateur. A la fin de la cueillette des données, 31 entrevues d'une durée moyenne d'une trentaine de minutes mais n'excédant pas une heure avaient été enregistrées. A l'exception de quelques passages moins audibles dus à la brusque faiblesse des piles, la qualité des bandes est excellente.

Analyse de contenu La plus grande partie des entrevues ayant été enregistrées, il s'agit de les transcrire de façon à ce qu'elles deviennent des données manipulables: "Transcripts are the main 'data' of many interview studies" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p. 93). Une vue d'ensemble du matériel a permis la sélection de 30 entrevues particulièrement représentatives dans le cadre du présent rapport. Le premier travail consiste à lire à plusieurs reprises les 30 transcripts composant notre base de données; ce survol nous permet de pressentir le type d'unités informationnelles à retenir pour classification subséquente (L'Ecuyer, 1985). Nous subdivisons ensuite le texte à chaque transition de sens exprimé par les sujets en rapport avec l'objet de la recherche. Ces unités sont le plus souvent des phrases uniques ou consécutives. Le critère de démarcation des unités est que ces phrases ressortent comme étant des exemples caractéristiques de l'expérience globale des sujets en rapport avec les objectifs spécifiques de la recherche (Bachelor & Joshi, 1986, p. 51). Après avoir délimité les unités de signification naturelles, nous abordons l'étape de catégorisation et classification; nous retenons comme définition opérationnelle celle donnée par l'Ecuyer d'une catégorie: " . . . une sorte de dénominateur commun auquel peut être ramené tout naturellement un ensemble d'énoncés sans en forcer le sens" (p. 74). Nous réorganisons le matériel de façon à ce que tous les énoncés dont le sens se ressemble puissent être regroupés en catégories ou thèmes plus larges sous un titre générique. L'approche de la théorie émergeante ("grounded theory"), décrite par Glaser et Strauss (1967), a guidé l'analyse inductive des données. Le modèle des catégories mixtes proposé par l'Ecuyer (p. 75) est celui que nous avons adopté pour l'analyse de contenu: l'existence d'une grille d'observation préexistante à la recherche sur le terrain (Tableau 1) avait pour but de guider la cueillette des données. Il existe donc une partie des catégories qui sont prédéterminées tandis que nous laissons place à la possibilité qu'un certain nombre d'autres soient induites en cours d'analyse, soit en sus des catégories préexistantes, soit en remplacement de celles-ci ou de certaines. Selon l'Ecuyer, les catégories préexistantes n'ont aucun caractère immuable dans le modèle mixte: "elles peuvent être conservées, rejetées, modifiées ou nuancées, complétées par de nouvelles catégories et même remplacées par elles selon la nature des particularités du matériel recueilli" (p. 75). Le modèle présente l'avantage de la flexibilité puisque les catégories prédéterminées 'preassigned coding systems' (Bogdan & Biklen, p. 162) peuvent disparaître au profit de nouvelles plus fidèles aux contenus analysés. Au cours de toute la démarche, nous avons appliqué les six conditions relatives à la qualité des catégories dans ce type d'analyse: (a) *exhaustives et en nombre limité*, (b) *pertinentes*, (c) *objectives et clairement définies*, (d) *homogènes*, (e) *productives* et (f) *mutuellement exclusives* (L'Ecuyer, p. 80). L'analyse de contenu nous a permis d'établir une liste de catégories maintenant définitives qui est représentée au tableau 3. Différents codificateurs devraient parvenir chacun à classifier les énoncés dans les mêmes catégories.

Tableau 3

Catégories définitives

1. OBJECTIFS
   a. développement de la communauté
   b. formation des maîtres
2. TECHNOLOGIE EDUCATIVE
   a. production de matériel
   b. validation du matériel
3. EDUCATEUR
   a. tuteur
   b. auteur
   c. correcteur
4. FORMES DE CONTACT
   a. individualisées
   b. groupées
   c. programmées vs libres
5. MOTIVATION
   a. nature des travaux
   b. flexibilité de l'échéancier
   c. qualité des échanges
6. CONTROLE ADMINISTRATIF
   a. décentralisation
   b. personnel qualifié
   c. rendement académique
7. EVALUATION & RECHERCHE INSTITUTIONNELLE
   a. satisfaction des besoins identifiés
   b. diversification du curriculum
   c. impact des programmes dans la communauté
8. LACUNES
   a. lenteur de la correspondance
   b. manque de coopération interuniversitaire
   c. manque de ressources humaines & matérielles
9. OBSTACLES
   a. d'ordre politique
   b. d'ordre économique
   c. d'ordre socio-culturel
10. ATTITUDES
   a. profil de l'étudiant à distance
   b. comparaison avec le système traditionnel
   c. andragogie vs pédagogie

Interprétation des résultats

L'interprétation des catégories obtenues (Tableau 3) apporte des éléments de réponse à la question de recherche initiale, à savoir dans quelle mesure le système colombien d'éducation à distance se distingue des modèles examinés dans la littérature. Nous retrouvons les sous-systèmes de Kaye et Rumble (voir p. 1) sous de nouveaux titres génériques: la catégorie 2 - Technologie éducative - correspond au sous-système des cours alors que les catégories 3, 4 et 5 - Educateur, Formes de contact et Motivation - représentent des composantes du sous-système des étudiants. De même, nous pouvons associer les catégories 6 et 7 - Contrôle administratif, Evaluation et Recherche institutionnelle - aux sous-systèmes de la logistique et de la prise de décision - contrôle. La comparaison des catégories de la grille d'analyse de contenu aux éléments des modèles des précurseurs met en évidence des similitudes reflétant l'importance de la planification d'une structure organisationnelle pour tout système d'enseignement à distance. Elle souligne l'existence de catégories distinctives qui viennent confirmer que les modèles ont été adaptés aux besoins spécifiques de la société colombienne. Les objectifs - catégorie 1 - influencent le curriculum au sein des systèmes d'éducation formelle et non formelle. Les sous-catégories 1a et 1b - Développement de la communauté et Formation des maîtres - attribuent une mission sociale à l'enseignement à distance; ceci nous conduit à poser une première hypothèse: l'étudiant à distance colombien est un agent de changement dans le sens d'une transformation du milieu par l'action communautaire. Plusieurs énoncés que nous ne pouvons reproduire dans les limites du présent résumé viennent corroborer cette affirmation. Les répondants partagent donc la même conviction, celle qui attribue à l'enseignement à distance la capacité de former l'adulte colombien en l'orientant vers une praxis sociale. L'application pratique et immédiate des connaissances nouvellement acquises favorise l'intervention dans son propre milieu et des réalisations productives au sein de la communauté; le chemin vers l'autogestion passe par la création d'entreprises nouvelles. Cette philosophie sous-jacente va apparaître dans le curriculum au sens large du système d'éducation à distance colombien. La formation des maîtres apparaît comme étant une condition nécessaire mais non suffisante à la construction de ce projet de société; en rejoignant une population étudiante plus diversifiée, les institutions devraient augmenter leurs chances de succès à long terme.

Alors que les différentes institutions partagent une idéologie commune, le développement de la communauté par l'éducation à distance, on observe des réalités multiples quant à la façon d'opérationnaliser l'apprentissage. Les catégories 3, 4, 5 et 10 - Educateurs, Formes de contact, Motivation et Attitudes - témoignent de la diversité des approches: selon les institutions, l'éducateur assume un ou plusieurs rôles entre les fonctions de tuteur, auteur et/ou correcteur; les formes de contact adoptées diffèrent suivant leur nature et leur fréquence - individualisées, groupées et programmées vs libres; la motivation qui est fondée sur la nature des travaux, la flexibilité de l'échéancier et la qualité des échanges n'est pas perçue de manière identique d'un établissement à l'autre; de plus, elle apparaît auprès des répondants comme étant étroitement liée aux attitudes décrites à la catégorie 10 - Profil de l'étudiant à distance, Comparaison avec le système traditionnel et Andragogie vs Pédagogie. L'examen des catégories 3, 4, 5 et 10 nous conduit à poser une deuxième hypothèse: l'évaluation du rendement de l'étudiant à distance colombien varie selon la conception de l'adulte en situation d'apprentissage existante au sein d'une institution donnée. Les contenus de certaines entrevues viennent nous éclairer sur ce point et nous permettent d'énoncer que cette conception de l'adulte en situation d'apprentissage varie d'une institution à l'autre selon l'importance que chacune accorde à la réalisation de pratiques andragogiques (Knowles, 1976) au sein de leurs curriculums respectifs. Se dissocier du système conventionnel implique une familiarisation avec les théories gouvernant l'éducation des adultes à distance et une transformation de la conception de l'apprentissage. Il est donc normal d'observer des approches diverses au cours de cette évolution; celles que nous avons identifiées au sein de quelques institutions d'enseignement à distance en Colombie semblent confirmer notre deuxième hypothèse.

Le modèle d'éducation à distance colombien subit l'influence de facteurs liés au contexte politico-économique et culturel du pays. Ceux-ci occasionnent des difficultés que les catégories 8 et 9 - Lacunes et Obstacles - illustrent comme étant spécifiques de l'échantillon observé mais aussi généralisables à l'ensemble des systèmes à distance en Colombie. Ces difficultés communes ne sont pas étrangères au phénomène de stratification sociale largement répandu en Amérique latine. Instabilité politique et économie précaire font que la Colombie a dû ériger un modèle d'éducation à distance alternatif adapté aux contraintes nationales, ce qui vient appuyer la proposition de Rumble énoncée dans l'introduction.

Conclusion La contribution de notre recherche exploratoire se situe dans l'élaboration de deux grilles: d'une part, nous avons établi un instrument d'observation (Tableau 1); d'autre part, nous avons produit un instrument d'évaluation (Tableau 3) qui pourrait guider de futurs évaluateurs. En matière d'aide internationale, notre étude vient confirmer l'importance du respect du caractère endogène dans les pays en voie de développement; il nous apparaît fondamental de privilégier le financement de solutions simples adaptées aux besoins et aux ressources de la Colombie plutôt que de tenter l'introduction d'une technologie étrangère sophistiquée. Il serait intéressant de déterminer quelle approche ou combinaison d'approches curriculaires donne les meilleurs résultats à court et à long terme. Il serait utile de se pencher sur le rôle de la femme en Colombie, sachant que le noyau familial y demeure traditionnel et que la population enseignante est largement féminine. Il faudrait également procéder à des études d'impact afin de déterminer si le développement de la communauté est effectivement atteint et qui en sont les principaux acteurs; quant à la priorité accordée à la formation des maîtres, il semblerait qu'une population diversifiée constitue un meilleur calcul à long terme que l'investissement exclusif dans le corps enseignant, toutefois ceci devrait faire l'objet d'études plus poussées. De façon plus générale, la présente recherche nous conduit à nous interroger sur la transformation du milieu universitaire conventionnel face à l'intégration progressive de centres déscolarisés au sein de sa structure originale.

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LEARNING PARTNERSHIPS IN ADULT EDUCATION

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Introduction

This project was inspired by a publication of Joan Robinson et al. titled "Learning Partnerships: Interdependent Learning in Adult Education". The publication is a case study of graduate students working on theses or dissertation projects. It was anticipated that the process strategy of learning partnerships, although quite common in teaching and learning at all levels, had special, significant applications for adult learners.

Learning experiences shared by two learners can enhance learning for adults. In this interactional partnership process, two learners develop a mutual commitment for a learning task and to each other. However, unless there is a general awareness of the variables involved, the potential of the formation of an effective partnership is not much better than chance. Nevertheless, this mutual commitment has proven to be an excellent method for learning for those who are willing to invest the necessary dedication, time, energy and commitment.

This report is the result of a study in various Southwestern Ontario centres of 412 adult students and 93 teachers of adults. It was considered that the process discussed in the Robinson article for graduate students could be adapted and refined for other levels of adult education.

A study was developed in an attempt to identify the positive and negative variables of this dyadic relationship. As a means to this end, separate samples were assembled from each of students and teachers. The representation was Adult Basic Education (30 percent), English/French as a Second Language (27 percent) and high school credit courses (43 percent). The teacher and also the student sample consisted of approximately the same proportional representation.

General

The data collected has been used to premise the following general and specific comments. There are few definite conclusions other than a suggested mode of procedure and cautions related to disruptive related variables. Further research is suggested, especially related to the effects of learning styles on partner compatibility.

The intensity and commitment over time to learning partnerships can be viewed as the three dimensional continuum of diagram B. The horizontal breadth relates to the intensity of the involvement while the depth of the model can be used to describe the time variable relevant to the length of the commitment. At one end of the continuum is the short term type task related involvement where the pair work together in a single, brief/temporary relationship. At the centre point is a relation that has gained the intensity common to friendship. This would include all of the commitments and mutual respect connotations that the act of friendship involves. This type of relationship appears to linger long after the completion of a task and indicates compatibility. Some learners will search out a friend/buddy from a previous paired experience whenever a new partnership opportunity arises.

The physical commitment at the right of the emotional intensity continuum refers to relationships such as marriage. This is usually a long term or intense emotional relationship with the dedication and mutual trust/respect that comes from knowing each others strengths and weaknesses in depth.

An important consideration at all of these levels was the procedure for measurement and evaluation. Should each partner be evaluated separately, have a combined separate and mutual mark or have a single common mark related to the quality of the task being assessed?

This question generated quite a different response from teachers and students. The teachers were divided between separate and a single mark for the pair. The students indicated a 63 percent choice for a combined mark. For them, this meant that part of the mark was related to the group effort and part for individual contribution. They felt that this provided a measure of check and balance for individuals who were not willing to assume an equal share of the workload. It seemed important that guidelines be established at the beginning to allow for this measure of individual accountability.

Special Features

1. The positive and negative feedback resulting from interaction in the partnership causes one to develop a greater understanding because of challenge in the ideation process. The need to clarify leads one to a greater depth of understanding of theoretical issues.
2. At times, each attempts to make the other dependent. This again causes a mild positive form of competitiveness and again leads to a greater depth of understanding. Helping skills are enhanced when opportunities are allowed for reflection.
3. The positive nature of the competitiveness can cause one to break the bonds of socialized perception and along with the increased tension in feelings, aids in the development of new insights.
4. Energy to continue in the learning cycle is derived from each other, is shared and even generated due to the motivational supportive drive of the relationship. Tasks become a joint effort and priorities are shifted to accommodate the perceived learning goals accepted as goals for the partnership.
5. Many students have difficulty going to the teacher or making known their particular difficulties with content, sequences, solutions or concepts and may hesitate to draw this to the attention of the instructor. In these situations and also for misunderstanding or failing to hear key steps in a sequence or an aspect of a theory, the partnership provides a supportive structure for the learner. Both are gathering information which can be shared, compared and reinforced during partnership interaction.
6. The discussion of concepts with each other causes each to develop better listening skills and to delve into material to a greater depth. Discussion promotes related reading as each tries to become more informed on each issue for the purpose of explaining it to the other.
7. One's learning skills are enhanced by being in close contact and having an opportunity to observe the specific skills and strengths of a significant other.

Application

The method is a learner centered approach for content centered curriculum. It can be utilized for both experiential and information assimilation learning. To a great extent, the previous studies of applications have been with modularized curriculum, thesis or limited application such as case studies and presentations. It has been found that where a teacher may use small groups to explore ideas, the reduction of group size to partnerships generally resulted in exploration to a greater depth and understanding.

The method seems especially effective in workshops. However, the instructor is cautioned to use partnerships as a procedure in the learning process and not as a task. A majority of the teachers in the sample also felt that partnerships were effective for information gathering such as researching and reporting on a topic. The preparation of a presentation and the actual delivery provides an effective vehicle for language development, ideation and organization of data. In addition to this purpose, one third of the teachers considered the partnerships as an excellent procedure to teach problem solving. This seemed to relate closely to the case study method. Once formed, members of the dyad can reinforce learning through discussion of course content and testing of ideas and concepts on each other. This formulation and "bouncing" of ideas off one another usually leads to a greater depth of understanding and meaning due to the necessity to interrelate ideas and explain specifics. Much of the interaction tends to be attempts by each to teach the other. Each must assume a fair share of the responsibility for the task of the partnership and a joint, enthusiastic commitment for a successful completion. It is a matter of finding someone with whom you are comfortable and can work together in an effective and efficient manner, each complementing the strengths or weaknesses of the other.

Suggested Utilization of Partnership Strategy by Course Types

Type of Course	Method	Comments
E.S.L. - F.S.L.	Discussion	Language experience
	Seminar	Presentation experience
	Cultural research	Research and presentation
	Case study	Problem solving
Adult Basic Education	Discussion	Language
	Information gathering	Writing
	Library	Data organization
	Laboratory activity	Reading
		Equipment economy
High School Credit Course	Information gathering	Research experience
	Library	Data summation
	Case study	Problem solving
	Laboratory activity	Equipment economy and shared ideation

Formation of Effective Dyads

Learning partnerships can form an effective supportive learning environment if a minimal pattern of organization is followed by the teacher. Reference should be made to the level of importance of various characteristic ranked in Charts A. Some or all of these must be considered during the formation of the dyad depending on the time and depth of study in the assigned task. Short term activities require observance of ranked items one to five while longer term partnership commitments require consideration of all twelve and in that order of priority. It has also been suggested that for longer term tasks, that a pilot run of the partnership be tried on a lesser task to determine partnership compatibility. Learning style compatibility is a contributing factor.

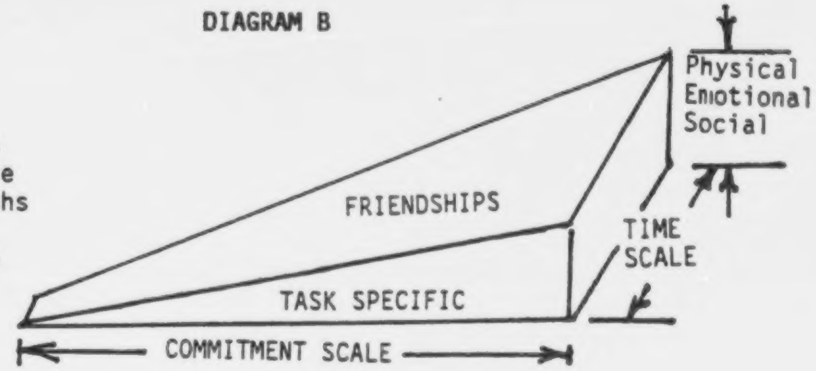
The most efficient method suggested for forming pairs included the following procedures:

1. A survey of the class by the teacher to establish a profile of the ranked twelve compatibility characteristics listed in Chart A.

Chart A

RANK	Category
1	Dependability
2	Enthusiasm
3	Cooperativeness
4	Similar schedule
5	Special strengths
6	Similar values
7	Will compromise
8	Different sex
9	Same sex
10	Age
11	Ethnic group
12	Race

DIAGRAM B



2. A brief statement to the class by the teacher/facilitator to relate compatible characteristics. Then opportunities are provided for class members to interview or otherwise discover a compatible partner.
3. Provide a short term activity for the pairs to allow the development of interpersonal awareness as a pilot run.
4. Provide a concise statement of the method of evaluation and dimensions of the task with allowances for individual accountability.
5. Provide an opportunity in class for pairs to organize and circulate among the partners to provide organizational assistance.
6. Provide 'face saving' alternatives for pairs that cannot cooperate.

The individuals involved must develop a focus for the relationship based on learning. This is interactional and does not necessarily need to extend into the realm of a friendship as indicated on the preceding continuum. If the partnership becomes a peer group relationship, productivity is reduced. The teacher must avoid attempts to structure the learning partnerships and simply provide a setting for them to work out their own rules and schedule.

In the initial stages, contact must be made. The teacher facilitator can provide opportunities to contact potential partners for partnerships through a sort of social interaction. It may be difficult to get some to speak up. Who will make the first move? Nevertheless, preliminary contacts can be reinforced or discarded through a series of interviewing where candidates have a chance to test each other for compatible value systems, goals and schedules that could support further interaction. Preliminary partnerships seem to be followed by a period of "muddling" while individuals test and develop levels of trust, sort out abilities and compatibilities. It is a time to sort out the unique nature and strengths of the relationship. Once the preliminary phase is out of the way, an agenda can be prepared, meetings scheduled and an inventory taken of available abilities and resources.

A timetable for completion, along with responsibilities, is usual during or just after the "muddling" period. Meetings to work out structure and process matters can be before class, during, after class and at lunch or coffee. The right person is compatible, interesting, supportive, stimulating, challenging and has a similar schedule. The phases of formation are introduction, discovery of the other's point of view, muddling and productivity.

Learning Quality Control

It is important for the teacher/facilitator to develop an effective monitoring productivity reporting system to keep learning partners working at their peak performance level. It is not good enough just to assign the tasks and allow them to proceed on their own to the end. Many difficulties that groups encounter can be solved easily at an early stage. It is a matter of checking, asking, reinforcing or discouraging that which could interfere with productivity and compatibility. In some situations the teacher can become a mediator to solve apparently insurmountable differences. It could be a simple matter of identifying a problem for the pair or to allow absorption of the emotional energy generated by differences. In effect the partnership is a mini forcefield of like and unlike sociometric forces. It is up to the teacher/facilitator to maintain a productive balance at all times.

For those who have been able to perfect the partnership strategy, it seems important that the teacher/facilitator establish a rating form to document progress and to be completed periodically during the process of the task.

Likes and Dislikes

Adult students were asked to list their likes and dislikes for working with learning partners. The following positive responses have been summarized and rank ordered.

1. Learning was easier and to a greater depth because of two points of view in discussions. This also helped ideation in problem solving situations.
2. It was pleasant to meet new people and to make friends. The dyad provided a form of sociological support structure and someone to share the work and the pleasantries of the association.
3. The special abilities and expertise that each brought to the task, when shared, allowed for more material to be covered and at a greater depth of understanding.
4. Constructive criticism was a valued part of the learning experience. But it had to be tempered with sensitivity. When a communication bond was established, each could provide an evaluative component for the other and inspiration at appropriate intervals when needed.

Dislike

On the other side of the coin, there were numerous reasons for partnership breakdown. However, it appears that many of the items could be avoided given forewarning and some teacher/instructor pre-organization. Nevertheless, there were some serious difficulties revealed. In the attitude category were items such as: lack of enthusiasm, lack of cooperation, inability to compromise, lazy, know it all, not dependable, disagreements, slow and/or dumb partner, excess criticism, bossy person and waiting for a slow partner to do his/her share of the work and sharing marks with slackers. Other items were related to lack of organization or pre-planning. Specific negative points were things such as different schedules, partner not available for discussions, all talk and no action, always late and absenteeism. Added to this were comments from several who just preferred to work alone and not be required to rely on others.

A Note of Caution

Learning partnerships are only as good as the initial compatibility, orientation provided and supervised by the teacher and later the continual observation of level of productivity of each group. Many serious difficulties can be solved in the first instance by an observant teacher. However, all of this is based on the assumption that the task assigned to a partnership is appropriate subject matter for group work and the evaluation procedure has been spelled out to the satisfaction of all participants. Nevertheless, once the partnerships are formed and in motion, the teacher/instructor/facilitator must take considerable care not to interfere with the structure and schedule developed by a pair unless there is need for a major correction.

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TITLE: FACTORS AFFECTING INFORMATION PREFERENCES OF SERIOUSLY ILL ADULTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE, EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

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Introduction

Conflicting views remain regarding the nature and amounts of information individuals desire when faced with a serious illness, such as lung cancer. The controversy stems from the fact that people vary in their preferences for detailed information and in the extent to which they want to participate in decision-making about their treatments (Cassileth et al., 1980). Vachon (1985) reported the difficulty people in her sample had in deciding the type and the amount of information they wanted about their condition, while Ley (1977) found that patients with potentially terminal disease, such as, lung cancer, wished to be fully informed about their illness and its management. This paper will focus on the information preferences of persons with lung cancer.

Related Literature

The nature of the information sought by patients is thought to be determined by two factors: 1) the harms, threats and resources perceived as related to a noxious event; and 2) the informational needs or deficits perceived as associated with that event (Derdiarian, 1986). However, providing patients with voluminous preparatory information was found to exacerbate their level distress, while giving them minimal information decreased their level of arousal (Miller & Mangan, 1983). This finding is consistent with the observation of Bandura (1977) who noted that while preferred information sometimes decreased patients' stress and arousal, it could also have the reverse effect. People's coping styles also appear to play a role in the amount and type of information they can tolerate (ibid., 1983).

Issues surrounding the type, amount, relevancy and timing of the information given to patients have been raised by some researchers. For instance, Burish and Lyles (1983) noted that in some cases patients received little or no relevant information, while in other situations the information was presented in such a complex manner, or at such a stressful time that patients fail to understand and remember it (p. 178). It is believed that the information which individuals receive about their illness serves a preparatory function, (Krantz et al., 1980); provides them with a sense of control (Bloom, 1979); and reduces uncertainty about aversive procedures (Berlyne, 1960). This brief overview of the literature is to give direction to this paper, and is not intended as an exhaustive review.

Purpose

This paper, part of a larger study which looked at the relationship between specific variables and patients' quality of life, examines the types and amounts of information lung cancer patients wanted to have about their illness, and their expressed level of participation in decisions about treatment. It also looks at factors which appear to influence patients' preferences for illness-related information.

Method

Sample

Eighty-seven patients with lung cancer who were receiving treatment as outpatients at a cancer clinic agreed to participate in the study. The sample included 24 females and 63 males most of whom were married and had high school or less education. The ages of those studied ranged from 38 to 82 years; their mean age was 61, with a standard deviation of 9.45. Fifty-six percent of the subjects knew of their diagnosis for periods ranging from two weeks to six months or less, 27 percent, seven to 24 months or less, and 17 percent over 24 months.

Measure

Respondents completed the Information Styles Questionnaire developed by Cassileth et al. (1980), which they used with cancer patients. The instrument elicited patients' information and participation preferences regarding such things as possible side effects of treatment, the likelihood of cure, and their desire for involvement in treatment decisions.

Results

Patients generally preferred more detail in the amount of information they received about their illness and its treatment. Forty-seven (54 percent) said they preferred much more information than they currently received; 17 (20 percent) indicated they needed some more information; while 22 (25 percent) of them preferred not to have any more information beyond that which they had already received. There was one non-respondent to this question. An attempt was made to assess patients' reaction to information they received on an ongoing basis during follow-up care. Sixty-five (75 percent) of the respondents expressed the desire to have information about their condition whether the news was "good" or "bad". Their reasons are shown in Table 1. As can be seen from these responses, many patients used the information to plan and prepare themselves and their families for future outcomes.

Data were sought about patient preferences for information in three illness-related categories, namely, diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment effects. The people in this sample varied in their desire for specific types of information, (Table 2). As shown in the table, more than one-third of the patients, 38 (44 percent), felt that they absolutely needed information as to

Table 1: Reasons Patients Gave for Wanting Information Good or Bad (N=87)

Reasons	N	%
To plan/make decisions for future	19	29
Right to know what is going on	15	23
To know what to expect (no surprises)	12	19
To be able to cope	9	14
Cooperate with treatment	4	6
No reason given	6	9
TOTAL	65	100

able 2: Areas Patients Expressed Desire for Information (N=87)

ypes of Information	Absolutely Needed		Would like		Do not Want	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Diagnosis						
hether cancer or not	38	44	44	50	5	6
hether other parts of body involved	33	38	47	54	7	8
hether inherited or contagious	20	23	53	61	14	16
pecific medical name	20	23	51	59	16	18
Prognosis						
ikelihood of cure	33	38	45	52	9	10
eek to week progress	23	27	55	63	9	10
Treatment Effects						
ossible side effects	36	41	46	53	5	6
reatment expectation	29	33	53	61	5	6
reatment effects on body	27	31	53	61	7	8
ffectiveness of treatment for others	21	24	56	64	10	12
nformation regarding similar cases treated	14	16	49	56	24	28

whether or not they had cancer; 36 (41 percent), information on all the possible side effects of treatment; 33 (38 percent), on the likelihood of cure, and whether other parts of their body were involved; and 29 (33 percent) of patients wanted information about their prescribed treatment, and what it was expected to accomplish.

It should be noted, too, that there were specific areas in which a sizeable number of patients preferred not to have information. For example, more than one-quarter of the sample had no desire for information about other people with conditions similar to their own. As well, 16 (18 percent) of the patients were not interested in knowing the specific medical name of their illness, or whether it was inherited or contagious, 14 (16 percent). In general, however, the respondents in this present study preferred to be informed.

Although patients generally preferred to have illness-related information, the majority had no desire to participate in decision-making about their treatment. When asked about their participation preferences in medical care and treatment decisions, 49 (56 percent) of the patients surveyed preferred their physicians to make these decisions, while 37 (43 percent) expressed a desire for involvement.

Pearson correlational technique was used to determine the relationship between patients' preference for information about their diagnosis, prognosis, side effects of treatment, and their quality of life. Significant negative relationships were found between the respondents' desire for information about their diagnosis and prognosis, and their quality of life ($r = -.27$, $p < .01$), ($r = -.27$, $p < .01$), respectively. Information about treatment effects was not related to these patients' quality of life.

A stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted in an attempt to identify variables which would predict patients' preferences for information about their illness. The best three predictor variables selected as influencing patients' preferences about information on their condition, diagnosis and prognosis, were age, current chemotherapy treatment, and education, which accounted for 20 percent of the variance, all significant. Age was the only variable which appeared relevant in these patients' preference for information about treatment and its effects, ($F = 7.70$, $p < .006$).

Discussion

The inverse relationship observed between people's informational preferences regarding their diagnosis and prognosis, and their quality of life suggests that there may be shifts in people's preferences depending upon the information they receive about their condition. This appears to be so, since many of the questions in these two areas focussed on the extent of their illness, monitoring progress, and the likelihood of cure. The more distressing the news people received the lower the quality of life they experienced. It is understandable that people would prefer not to have this kind of information. However, given the seriousness of lung cancer, and the already negative view most people hold about a diagnosis of cancer in general, it could reasonably be speculated that individuals with this condition expect at some time to receive news of an unpleasant nature. The finding that an overwhelming majority of the sample (75 percent) preferred to be informed about their illness whether the news was "good" or "bad", suggests that, while some information may cause them distress, most patients would rather confront the situation and make the necessary adjustments, when the news was unpleasant, as indicated in Table 1.

The finding that one's age, educational level, whether or not one is receiving chemotherapy treatment play a role in people's information preferences and offers some interesting insights for care management.

Implications

These results are important both for practitioners and educators since understanding some of the factors which determine seriously ill adults' preferences for information may lead to more helpful interactions between patients and practitioner. The practitioner who is sensitive to the impact one's age, education, and the problems frequently associated with receiving chemotherapy have on the informational needs and preferences of people can utilize this knowledge in planning approaches to care and providing appropriate services. Educators can be guided by this knowledge in providing information for patients with cancer. In this sample where the mean age is 61 years, and the educational level often high school or less, material should be easily readable and free of technical complex language, and concise. As well, the amount of information given should be in line with the patients' preferred style.

Finally, while this study provides a few interesting insights, it does not end the debate surrounding the types and amounts of information seriously ill adults prefer, or should or should not receive. Future investigations should continue to look for answers to these and other questions such as, the appropriate times during the course of the illness, information should be provided, and the conditions under which information would be most beneficial to patients.

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IS THERE A PLACE FOR THE TEACHING OF LEARN HOW TO LEARN SKILLS IN AN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION CURRICULUM?

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In 1984, the Alberta Vocational Centre in Calgary obtained funding from the Innovative Project Funds to pilot a Learning Skills Development Programme. The initial purpose for such a project was to study the effects of the development of cognitive skills of students in a Basic Education Programme. A typical student enrolled in a Basic Education Programme at the Alberta Vocational Centre is a person who has only partially completed a high school or junior high school programme , and is now returning to school to upgrade skills in the basic core subjects such as mathematics, language arts and reading. More often than not, such a student is repeating a grade level previously completed in a regular school system because the student cannot demonstrate skills required to enter a subsequent level.

It was hypothesized that students taking the Learning Skills Development Programme would show better performance than students in a control group. Such better performance would be reflected in measurable scores on reading and mathematics standardized tests and on a test of mental abilities. (Rempel, 1986)

Reuven Feuerstein's Instrumental Enrichment Programme was selected, using Robert J. Sternberg's recommendations for the selection of an appropriate intervention programme. (Sternberg, 1984) The Instrumental Enrichment Programme is based on a very sound psychological theory of how to improve cognitive functioning related to the input, elaboration, and output of information. It lists all those intellectual processes it seeks to train, and also provides the educational theory to indicate how such processes may be trained. It is also a programme designed for the "disadvantaged" population, and as such, is aimed at the general student population at A.V.C. Calgary.

The Programme itself is relatively culture-free and not knowledge-based. Therefore, it is not threatening to any particular content area. It can also be adapted to any age-group and is socio-culturally appropriate for our target population. Also, the programme provides training in mental processes used in task performance, provides opportunities to practise the strategies learned, and shows students how such strategies can be transferred and implemented in new situations.

Although superficially, the materials, a set of paper and pencil exercises, may appear juvenile or even overly simplistic, students will very soon feel that the emphasis is really on the mental processes that arise from all the discussions that take place. The materials may appear to be simple, but they serve only as vehicles to bring about mental processes that are both intellectually challenging and motivational.

One of the greatest merits of this programme is that it permits individual responses. In fact, it encourages individual responses because part of the educational theory of the Instrumental Enrichment Programme is to encourage mediated learning experiences among participants of the Programme. (Feuerstein, 1982) This built-in sensitivity towards individual differences is of paramount importance when we work with adults (Smith, 1982) who come to our Basic Education Programme with such varied personal life experiences.

The Instrumental Enrichment Programme also provides a link between using strategies learned in the programme and using the same strategies to function in the real world through mini-bridging techniques used in discussions. This is an attempt to increase the likelihood of occurence of situations where transfer of learning can take place.

Furthermore, the Instrumental Enrichment Programme has been researched extensively and implemented in different socio-economic groups, different age-groups, and different intellectual-ability groups. It is considered to be the most widely used and field-tested programme, both in North America and abroad. The Programme also imposes strict guidelines on teacher-training. Individuals have to be trained and then certified before they are qualified to teach the Programme. Also, Instrumental Enrichment teachers are closely monitored in the classroom instruction of the programme to ensure that they are achieving the objectives set out in the Programme. This will eliminate the possibility of the programme not realizing its potential due to insufficiently or improperly trained teachers.

The Instrumental Enrichment Programme is an on-going programme that can be taught at different levels for a number of years. Theoretically, the longer the period of intervention, the better the cognitive skills will crystallize. However, depending on our own institutional objectives, we can set our own expectations and the programme can be adapted to achieve such objectives within a pre-determined time frame.

Finally, the Instrumental Enrichment Programme is very well packaged with teaching materials, teachers' guides, suggested lesson plans, teacher-training workshops, follow-up workshops, professional meetings and newsletters. The Programme can thus be implemented fairly conveniently as a total educational package.

The instructional phase of the Instrumental Enrichment Programme at A.V.C. consisted of approximately 60 hours of instruction in groups of 10 to 13. (The total programme may require over 200 hours of intervention over a period of two to three years.) Both the experimental and control groups had an equal 80 minutes of instruction per day in mathematics and language arts. The control group received 80 minutes of reading instruction per day while the experimental group received 40 minutes of reading and 40 minutes of Instrumental Enrichment instruction over a five month semester.

Instruction consisted of pencil and paper exercises which were from the Level One Instruments, namely Organization of Dots, Orientation in Space, and part of Comparisons and Analytic Perception. Exercises were always preceded and followed by extensive discussions as outlined or suggested in the teachers' manual. Two experimental programmes were piloted, first with the

Fall, 1984 Group, and then with the Spring, 1985 Group, with slight instructional and evaluation modifications to this latter group.

Testing and evaluation for the Fall Group consisted of the Stanford Diagnostic Test, Reading and Mathematics (Brown Level), and the Lorge-Thorndike Mental Abilities Test. Two reaction type questionnaires were administered to assess the students' opinion of the programme. Results of the standardized tests indicated no significant differences in either the reading or mathematics sub-tests. The Spring Group was assessed only by questionnaires and discussion feedback.

The conclusion to be drawn from this experimental programme was that the Instrumental Enrichment Programme was not an effective programme for the Alberta Vocational Centre Basic Education student population,given the time constraints and scheduling limitations. However, although the results are not conclusive due to too many variables and a very limited data base, student reaction indicated that "over half of the students perceived the programme to be beneficial, even though they reacted negatively to some of the exercises and to the experimental nature of the programme." (Rempel, 1986)

The lesson to be learned here did not end with the conclusion of the pilot project. We have observed very positive changes among the students that participated in the programme, changes that confirmed Feuerstein's theory of cognitive modifiability and affirmed that adults can learn how to learn. Observers who were invited to sit through some classes reported that students were demonstrating "independent self-reflective problem-solving skills, higher verbal ability not characteristic of Basic Education students, conscious application of learned strategies to perform assigned tasks, acquisition of questioning techniques, and an awareness of checking and using supporting resources when performing comparisons. They were also able to make inferences from a limited information base and were able to disagree on a cognitive level with peers and the instructor." (Hong, 1985) The instructor had also learned through this pilot project to look for what Feuerstein referred to as "microchanges", particularly in deficient learners. In short, an attempt to involve students in a Learning Skills Development Programme did produce some observable positive results although these did not necessarily show up on test scores.

Such findings gave the institution the impetus to continue with the search for a Learn How To Learn Skills Programme. Coincidentally, an Adult Basic Education Project involving all the Vocational Centres in Alberta for the purpose of identifying the skills deemed necessary to be a functionally literate adult living in Alberta has been well underway. Albertans from all walks of life were polled, and responses were compiled to form a list of adult basic skills viewed as necessary to be functionally literate. The University of Alberta then compiled and computed the data into a cross-referenced catalogue referred to as The Catalogue of Adult Basic Skills and included in the Catalogue was a profile chart called a Profile of Adult Basic Skills. Interestingly enough, one of the categories identified was

"Category G: Learn How To Learn Skills."

The purpose of this paper is to reflect on the issue of whether "there is a place for the teaching of Learn How To Learn Skills in an Adult Basic Education Curriculum." Before we can asnwer that question, we have to first define what we mean by "Learning How To Learn."

According to Robert M. Smith, "Learning How To Learn" is a concept. "Learning how to learn involves possessing, or acquiring, the knowledge and skill to learn effectively in whatever learning situations one encounters. If you possess the necessary knowledge and skill, you have learned how to learn; and when you help yourself or others to acquire that kind of knowledge or skill, the concept is also at work." (Smith, 1982)

Snow and Yalow explained learning as "intellectual organization." (Snow and Yalow, 1985). William K. Estes conceptualized "learning" as "generally taken to refer to the way organisms profit by experience so as, on the average at least, to increase adaptability to their environments." (Estes, 1985) Estes further defined learning as "all systematic processes of acquiring information or knowledge." Since "intelligence" has been defined at a very general level as "goal-directed adaptive behaviour", (Sternberg and Salter, 1985), it is fair to say that "learning how to learn" is related to intelligence in some form although learning and intelligence may not be entirely synonymous. If we accept such a relationship between learning and intelligence, then, for our purpose here, we can use David Perkins' model of intelligence which is: Intelligence = Power + Tactics + Content. According to this view, "the power theory of intelligence holds intelligence depends on the neurological efficiency of the brain as an information processing device." As such, "learning does not affect this power very much, although mental stimulation over a period of many years may have some impact." (Perkins, 1986) If we accept this view, then, education has very little direct impact on the "power" component of one's intelligence. Jonathan Baron referred to what Perkins called "the power of intelligence" as the "capacity " for thinking. However, Baron drew another parallel, which appears to be quite similar to Perkin's "tactics of intelligence", which Baron referred to as the "propensities" for thinking. Propensities, unlike capacities, are to some extent under voluntary control and are thus more subject to influences through education." (Baron, 1985) In Perkin's model of intelligence, both the tactics component and the content component may be acquired. Similarly, in Sternberg's triarchic theory of human intelligence, (Sternberg, 1984) the three types of processes, the metacomponents, the performance components and the knowledge-acquisition components, all suggest that intelligence is not a fixed entity and thus can be modified through teaching the appropriate strategies, thus further implying that such systems of "intellectual organization", "tactics", "strategies", "processes," "skills", "propensities ", or whatever term one may choose to use, can be learned and thus can and should be taught.

We understand that there are no lack of controversies surrounding this issue. Some call this latest interest in "thinking skills" among educators as a fad. (Brandt, 1986) Some experts claim that improved instruction of the 3 R's will automatically teach "Learn How To Learn Skills" and "Thinking Skills." Others talk of focussing on "basic learning" as " top priority", and resorting to "brain-compatible learning theory" as a viable solution. (Hart, 1986). However, as educators, we cannot deny that our traditional methods of instruction and the traditional focus on the 3 R's in adult basic education curricula do not seem to prepare our students well enough to meet the demands of a fast changing society as outlined in such renowned works as Megatrends (Naisbitt, 1982), The Third Wave (Toffler, 1980) and In Search of Excellence. (Peters and Waterman, 1982) The ability to adapt to a changing world calls for the ability to "learn how to learn." Since the 3 R's only provide the basics with which to learn content, we still need to acquire those skills, namely the "learn how to learn skills", to help us retain, select, manipulate and utilize the information and knowledge acquired. The ability "to learn" and the ability "to learn how to learn" may yet be one of the most valuable skills any educational institution can offer its students because it focusses on the ability to adapt to the ever expanding body of knowledge in a high-tech, information oriented society.

The problem at hand is then more on "what to teach" and "how to teach" in such a "learn how to learn skills" curriculum. Our pilot project, the Instrumental Enrichment Programme,has taught us that before our institution goes full force into the implementation of "learn how to learn skills", we should examine more closely the different types of "thinking skills" or "learn how to learn skills" programmes. We should also identify the different types of targetted student population and identify their needs before we can match them with the right programme. From our own experience with our pilot project, we have concluded that the more deficient learners may benefit from a programme such as the Instrumental Enrichment Programme which may call for innovative departmental or institutional scheduling. Other students may benefit from other programmes such as deBono's CoRT Programme.(deBono, 1986) Still others may benefit from merely using existing programmes with new teaching approaches that may not necessarily be bound to any pre-packaged "thinking skills" or "learn how to learn" programmes.

To date, A.V.C. Calgary and all other Alberta Vocational Centres are committed to provide in-service for instructional staff so that everyone is aware and informed of the most current issues on the teaching of "Learn How To Learn Skills." Also, an introductory manual on Category G from the Catalogue of Adult Basic Skills has been compiled and all Alberta Vocational Centres are still very actively involved in the search of the most effective and efficient ways to implement " Learn How To Learn Skills" in our basic education curricula because we believe that "there is a place for the teaching of Learn How To Learn Skills in an Adult Basic Education Curriculum."

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SYNTHESE DES PRINCIPAUX ELEMENTS DE MODELES DE SELF-MONITORING ETUDIES DANS UNE PERSPECTIVE METACOGNITIVE

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PROBLEMATIQUE

La métacognition est définie comme étant la capacité de savoir que l'on sait et de régulariser consciemment son propre processus d'apprentissage (Spring, 1985). Cette notion se rapporte au savoir et au contrôle que l'individu peut avoir sur les activités liées à sa pensée et à son apprentissage (Baker et Brown, 1984; Flavell, 1981). Elle comporte plusieurs sous-domaines tels, entre autres, le méta-apprentissage, la méta-mémoire, la méta-attention, le méta-langage (Flavell, 1981). Dans la présente étude, la métacognition est étudiée en fonction de l'apprentissage.

Les théoriciens décomposent la métacognition en deux parties majeures: le savoir métacognitif et l'autorégulation de la cognition, ces deux composantes étant en constante interaction (Brown, 1981; Reid et Pinard, 1985). Le savoir métacognitif se rapporte à la conscience qu'a l'individu des habiletés, stratégies et ressources qui lui sont nécessaires pour exécuter efficacement une tâche d'apprentissage. L'autorégulation se rapporte plutôt aux mécanismes que l'apprenant actif utilise intentionnellement pendant son processus d'apprentissage afin de corriger les erreurs ou les problèmes qui peuvent survenir (Baker et Brown, 1984).

Le self-monitoring, considéré ici comme étant une composante de l'autorégulation, représente la capacité qu'a l'individu de vérifier sa compréhension et de s'évaluer pendant sa démarche d'apprentissage afin d'apporter les corrections qui s'imposent (Schunk, 1982). Le self-monitoring est considéré comme une activité préalable nécessaire au contrôle du processus d'apprentissage que l'apprenant est appelé à exercer par lui-même, en l'absence d'un moniteur externe (professeur-e, par exemple). On retrouve, dans les écrits recensés, plusieurs modèles qui rendent compte du self-monitoring. Ces modèles s'inspirent surtout de l'approche béhavioriste (ex.: Bandura et Perloff, 1967), du courant de traitement de l'information (ex.: Underwood, 1978) et de l'approche cognitiviste (ex.: Flavell, 1981). Le but de la présente recherche est d'identifier les principaux éléments de modèles de self-monitoring représentatifs des approches actuelles afin d'en faire une analyse critique.

LA METHODE

Quatre critères ont guidé le choix des modèles: 1) ces modèles devaient avoir été proposés explicitement par les auteur-e-s; 2) ils devaient caractériser l'approche dont ils s'inspirent; 3) ils devaient intégrer les principaux éléments composant les autres modèles s'inspirant de la même approche; 4) ils devaient également être directement liés à l'apprentissage plutôt qu'à la solution de problème, à la créativité ou à la linguistique.

Les éléments composant chacun des modèles retenus ainsi que les interactions entre ces éléments ont d'abord été identifiés. L'ensemble des éléments/interactions identifiés ont ensuite fait l'objet d'une analyse critique.

Trois modèles correspondant aux trois principales approches qui orientent présentement l'étude de la métacognition sont présentés ici: le modèle d'auto-régulation (Béta-régulation) proposé par Kanfer et Karoly (1974) et inspiré de l'approche béhaviorale; le modèle de la dualité liée au self-monitoring proposé par Rigney (1980) et inspiré du courant de traitement de l'information et le modèle de prise en charge de l'activité cognitive proposé par Lefebvre-Pinard et Pinard (1985) et inspiré de l'approche cognitive.

LES RESULTATS

L'approche béhaviorale et le modèle de Béta-régulation de Kanfer et Karoly(1974):

L'approche béhaviorale se caractérise essentiellement par l'importance accordée à l'étude du comportement en tant que réponse observable et mesurable, déclenchée par un stimulus manipulable. Le self-monitoring et les notions connexes telles l'auto-observation, l'auto-évaluation, l'auto-renforcement, l'auto-régulation et l'auto-contrôle ont d'abord été décrites par les béhavioristes qui en avaient déjà compris l'importance. Le self-monitoring est surtout mis en rapport avec les techniques de collecte de données personnelles et avec les stratégies de traitement de certains troubles de comportement.

Le modèle de Béta-régulation de Kanfer et Karoly (1974) accentue l'importance des processus psychologiques modérateurs qui font principalement appel aux expériences passées, à la constitution biologique et au style de déclenchement des processus internes de chaque individu (Béta-régulation). Ce modèle s'oppose au type de contrôle exercé sous l'influence directe de l'environnement externe de l'individu (alpha-régulation). Le type d'auto-contrôle (béta-contrôle) dont il est ici question est fondé sur l'écart qui existe entre l'auto-observation et la performance souhaitée par l'individu et est complété par un auto-renforcement qui a pour but de réduire cet écart. Dans ce modèle, le self-monitoring est décrit à partir de trois stades distincts et est surtout défini à partir des notions d'auto-évaluation et d'auto-renforcement positif ou négatif.

L'analyse critique de ce modèle permet de constater que ce dernier comporte les trois éléments de base qui seront repris par les autres approches, à savoir un événement déclencheur, l'auto-évaluation ainsi que la modification d'un comportement. Mais il ne semble cependant pas rendre compte de certaines questions majeures. On ne sait pas, par exemple, pourquoi certains événements deviennent des déclencheurs chez certains individus et ne le deviennent pas chez d'autres. On ne précise pas quelles sont les conditions nécessaires pour que le self-monitoring ait lieu. Les notions d'expertise et de maturation et le rôle de ces dernières par rapport au développement de l'habileté de self-monitoring ne sont pas non plus prises en considération. Même si ce modèle, par définition, considère le self-monitoring comme étant une activité consciente, le rôle que joue la conscience du sujet par rapport au self-monitoring n'est pas suffisamment accentué. Cette représentation demeure mécaniste.

Le courant de traitement de l'information et le modèle de la dualité liée au self-monitoring de Rigney (1980):

Ce courant se base sur la métaphore de l'ordinateur pour décrire et expliquer le fonctionnement cognitif de l'être humain. Les individus y sont perçus comme des systèmes qui traitent constamment différents types d'informations provenant de l'environnement interne et externe. Le savoir en général constitue l'objet central et l'accent est mis sur les transformations ou activités mentales qui ont lieu entre le stimulus et la réponse, entre l'intrant et l'extrant. Les concepts de base que l'on retrouve dans les théories qui se réclament de ce courant sont la représentation, le processus et les ressources limitées liées à l'attention.

Le modèle de la dualité de Rigney (1980) accentue la notion de dualité du système humain de traitement de l'information: a) dualité par rapport à la latéralité cérébrale (fonctions linguistiques dans l'hémisphère gauche et fonctions non linguistiques dans l'hémisphère droit); b) dualité par rapport au système de codage (linguistique ou iconique); c) dualité par rapport au moi-agent et au moi-observateur chez tout apprenant; d)dualité, enfin, par rapport au traitement conscient et inconscient de l'information. Le type de self-monitoring dont il est question ici est principalement décrit à partir d'habiletés qui doivent s'insérer à l'intérieur d'un enchaînement d'opérations de traitement de l'information. Ces habiletés sont liées à l'évaluation de l'atteinte des sous-objectifs, à la détection et à la correction des erreurs et à la capacité de retourner à des opérations antérieures (look-back) ou de prévoir des opérations à venir (look-ahead). Les stratégies de self-monitoring dépendent de la combinaison entre la situation, les informations comme telles et les opérations de traitement de ces informations.

L'analyse critique de ce modèle permet de constater que, même s'il demeure incomplet, il rend mieux compte du self-monitoring que le modèle béhavioriste. Le self-monitoring est considéré ici comme étant nécessaire au processus d'apprentissage; il est également rendu possible par le biais même de la dualité du fonctionnement de l'individu. Sans cette dualité entre le moi-agent et le moi-observateur, par exemple, il ne pourrait y avoir de self-monitoring. De plus, selon ce modèle, le self-monitoring ne sert pas seulement à corriger les erreurs, mais il permet également de les éviter, ce qui représente une notion nouvelle qui pourrait s'avérer fort importante. Cependant, ce même modèle ne permet pas de savoir par quel mécanisme l'individu peut fonctionner à deux niveaux différents et n'accorde pas non plus beaucoup d'attention au contrôle sur l'apprentissage qui résulte du self-monitoring. Ce modèle néglige, de plus, la notion de spécificité de l'apprenant qui, dans les faits, n'est pas tout à fait semblable aux autres systèmes de traitement de l'information.

L'approche cognitive et le modèle de prise en charge de l'activité cognitive de Lefebvre-Pinard et Pinard (1985):

L'approche cognitive est de loin la plus répandue et celle qui a inspiré le plus de théorisation et de recherches. Les domaines les plus souvent investigués sont la mémoire, la lecture, l'attention, la communication. Les tenants de cette approche sont surtout préoccupés par les questions développementales, à savoir comment le self-monitoring se développe avec l'âge, passant d'un monitoring externe à un monitoring interne (self-monitoring). Ils accordent également de l'importance aux questions liées aux retards dans les apprentissages, ces retards ou problèmes étant alors attribués à des déficiences méta-cognitives, associées au self-monitoring en particulier.

Le modèle de prise en charge de l'activité cognitive de Lefebvre-Pinard et Pinard (1985) s'inspire de la théorie piagétienne ainsi que du domaine de la métacognition comme tel. Il accentue l'influence réciproque du savoir métacognitif et des processus d'auto-régulation visant la prise en charge par l'apprenant de son propre fonctionnement cognitif. On y retrouve trois principales composantes. La première composante est le savoir portant sur la métacognition et comprend les buts visés face à une tâche cognitive, les différences inter et intra-individuelles, les différences entre la tâche cognitive et d'autres types de tâches, les stratégies cognitives ainsi que les stratégies méta-cognitives. La deuxième composante se rapporte aux processus d'auto-régulation comme telle. La troisième composante se rapporte au résultat obtenu face à l'activité cognitive entreprise.

L'analyse critique de ce modèle permet de constater que ce dernier constitue le modèle le plus complet des modèles étudiés dans le domaine de la méta-cognition. Il tient compte du savoir cognitif qui sous-tend toute manifestation de self-monitoring et, de plus, débouche sur une prise en charge autonome, de la part de l'individu apprenant, de son propre fonctionnement cognitif. Cette notion de prise en charge s'apparente ici à celle d'auto-contrôle que l'on retrouve chez les béhavioristes et s'avère des plus importantes puisqu'elle permet, en grande partie, de rendre compte de la distinction entre apprenant expert vs. apprenant novice, entre apprenant adulte vs. apprenant enfant. Le rôle et l'importance de la conscience du processus vécu par l'apprenant, des objectifs visés ainsi que des résultats atteints sont de plus accentués d'une façon très pertinente. La notion de prise en charge ainsi que les notions connexes de conscience, méta-cognition, self-monitoring constituent très probablement des éléments essentiels de l'apprentissage réussi en général et de l'apprentissage de l'adulte en particulier.

CONCLUSION

L'identification des principaux éléments ainsi qu'un nécessaire recul critique face aux divers modèles de self-monitoring qui prédominent actuellement sauront fournir des pistes de recherche des plus riches, surtout en ce qui a trait au lien entre la méta-cognition et l'évolution de l'apprenant, son autonomie, l'efficacité de ses apprentissages. De plus, comprendre comment les individus assurent un self-monitoring efficace de leurs apprentissages permettra éventuellement d'enseigner ces habiletés à ceux et celles dont les apprentissages sont moins réussis.

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EFFECTIVENESS OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF WORK

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1. Introduction

The starting point of this paper is the growing awareness that an input-output model of change is inappropriate in researching effectiveness of education. The question 'Has education been effective?' is not enough - the question 'why (or why not) has education been effective?' has also to be asked in order to develop educational practices. The control paradigm of traditional evaluation has to be changed to the learning paradigm of developmental research, where the main intention of evaluation is learning from the attained information.

2. Case - The Process Character of Effectiveness of Education[1]

The 'soft-systems methodology' used in the research makes a difference between the real world and systems models describing the real world. The research builds up to a process where the problematic situation is modelled and analyzed through systems thinking in order to find and implement feasible and desirable changes. The idea of systems thinking is based on **'soft'** systems, so the paradigm for research is not one of optimizing, but one of learning. Checkland (1981) is giving a more precise description of the methodology.

In the research it was found out that only three of eighteen learners had applied skills learned in the course in their work. Most of the foremen did not have any connection with the application of skills learned in the course.

When this problematic situation was analyzed though systems thinking four significant systems were found that affected the process of effectiveness of education:

(1) **Training system** was based on educators' activities concerning the teaching process.

(2) **Operational system** was based on learners' activities concerning learning and application of learning in the work process.

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[1] The case presented as well as all the quotes are from a research (Kauppi 1985) based on semi-structured interviews conducted after six months of a course in measurement in electronics arranged by a center for continuing education in Finland.

> (3) **Directing and controlling system** was based on foremen's activities concerning the planning of the work process according to organizational plans.
>
> (4) **Environmental system** was based on other workers' activities based on comfortable working environment and easy-going atmosphere at the work place.

The four systems fit closely together forming a systems model of describing the effectiveness of education. The central importance of the operational system was clearly visible. This seems logical, when learning and application of learning are considered at the heart of the process of effectiveness of education.

In this case the main problems could be found in training system, directing and controlling system, and environmental system. The training was too theoretical and based on too narrow learning tasks in the laboratory as two quotes from the interviews express.

> "Things stay longer in the mind when you do something with them; you listen to theory, but it's so long and tiring that you rather think of something else."
>
> "It's hard to apply the training to work, when the tasks you complete in the laboratory don't ever come about here in practice."

The course was not directed to the work processes of the learners. Many of the measuring instruments on which the course was based were not used in the work processes. Most of the learners did not have a possibility to apply learned skills in their work, because their foremen kept them in other kind of working tasks. The following quote provides an example.

> "Yes, something from the course has stayed in my mind, but I haven't had the possibility to apply it, because we don't have those instruments in here; and the one we have here is still under guarantee, and it is repaired at the importers."

The environmental system puts its emphasis mainly on other things than learning. Training is often seen as an extra reward of well-done job or as a benefit already included in the work. In these cases training is based more on equality of workers and rewarding-system of organization than on learning and application of learning. The emphasis is more on amusement than learning as the following quote shows.

> "It's more like joking when you come from the course; you don't talk about the course - you talk about spending the night."

Although at this point the emphasis may seem to be on other systems rather than the operational system that is the central mechanism of interlocking the process together. In order to understand why education was not effective and to derive some suggestions for the further development of training. theoretical aspects of learning should be considered more thoroughly.

3. **The Importance of Learning for Development**

3.1. **Contextual and Reflective Aspects of Learning**

The process of learning should be recognized as conscious and goal-directed activity of human beings, where they continuously build up and reconstruct cognitive maps of themselves and their environment. People don't just behave, they think and make their own decisions concerning their activities in real world.

Contextuality is an important aspect of thinking and learning. When doing research on learning the practical activities learning is tied to should indeed be closely considered. This has led to the growing concern on thinking and learning in everyday contexts. A learner had a convincing argument on this as the next quote shows.

> "You learn in practice, what you need, you don't have the time to learn in training, if you go to a course once in five years."

The importance of **reflectivity** should especially be pointed out in practical thinking. In order to know what you are doing and why, you should have metacognitive skills that help you in evaluating and redirecting your activities.

If it is agreed on the importance of this kind of learning and thinking, a new way to approach effectiveness of education has to be produced. The learners have to be considered active human agents who are capable of knowing about their work and of making decisions concerning their work. When seen from this perspective the learners become the main designers of the effectiveness of education.

3.2. **Routinization and Practical Consciousness**

Daily life is very much organized on certain timepaths which seem to form the continuity of our activities. **Routinization** seems to be a central element in formation of our activities as one of the interviewees expressed.

> "When years go by, you routinize, and you hardly ever think about theory. At many times theory helps you in practical life, although you don't need it that way."

When routinization is considered in connection with thinking it is useful to make a distinction between **practical and discursive consciousness** (Giddens 1984). Discursive consciousness connotes those forms of recall that are possible to express verbally. Practical consciousness involves recall to which learners have access in their daily life without being able to express what they thereby 'know'. An interviewee expressed this the following way.

> "Always you can apply something, but you can't say what, because you don't think, what it is that you apply; for many years these measurements have been the same."

The importance of routinization and practical consciousness, closely connected to it, can be seen at best in critical situations where the daily routine is suddenly interrupted. At these moments you should be able to reflexively monitor your activities in order to find out what is really happening and what you should do about it. This kind of reflexive monitoring requires that you work the problems through discursive consciousness.

When connecting routinization to effectiveness discussion, it is useful to differentiate between two kinds of effects, namely, effects based on routinization (e.g. automatization of skills) and effects based on reflective monitoring of activity (e.g. problem solving skills). Connected to the paradigm of learning and thinking proposed earlier the last mentioned is central. Very often learners are tied to certain routines of everyday life, they do the same things day to day, and don't ever care to think, what they are actually doing. In order to stop and think, to gain control of their own activities, it is necessary to reflect and discuss about what they do and why they do it.

4. Structuration and Development of Work

Routinization is not only important considering human activities, it also occupies a very important place in the reproduction of work practices. Anthony Giddens (1984) sees the notion of **structuration** as central to the formation of social practices and social structures. A hint of structuration may be found in the following quote.

> "You try to tell others what to do, but they don't take it into account; They have old tricks, unchangeable habits."

When connecting structuration to effectiveness of education I find it useful to speak about organizational learning. It is indeed a metaphor, but it consists of seeds of entrepreneurial thinking. If effectiveness is seen as the change in collective work practices resulting from human activities, both mental and physical, the emphasis has to be shifted to learning at the workplace.

In practice this means that the contextual and collective nature of thinking and learning has to be accepted. This view on learning shifts the emphasis from training to development of work. At the same time effectiveness of education is seen within a different context, namely the context of work.

The consequences of the notion of organizational learning lie in the trust on capability of everyday cognition and human problem solving based on it. However, the learners have a limited capacity to conceptualize everyday phenomena, which makes it difficult to move to the level of discursive consciousness. A useful distinction here is between **everyday concepts** based on perceptually concrete phenomena and **theoretical concepts** based on substantial generalization (Dawydow 1977). In order to fully grasp the why's of their activities, they have to analyze deeper the historical and dialectical nature of their work practices and build up the theoretical construction of their activities. This means moving from the use of everyday concepts to the use of theoretical concepts. In a way they have to construct a theory of practice.

5. **Developmental Research - Some Initial Propositions**

(1) Research should be built into the very process of development, where it affects and is affected by learning and activities of human beings. In order to help the learners to direct and control the development the vital importance of communication during the research process should be stressed.

(2) Research should be directed more closely towards work practices. Research has to be done on work - and not on isolated work tasks, but on work as constituted of contextual and collective activities.

(3) The objective of developmental research is to approach the zone of proximal development (Engeström 1987), the potential level of development that has its roots in the everyday work practices.

(4) The instruments of developmental research include those used in qualitative research and problem solving. When actors participate in the constitution of work practices using these instruments, they necessarily need to participate in developmental interventions.

There have been some practical experiments in Finland concerning developmental research. Examples include cleaning work, flexible manufacturing, and the work of vocational psychologists. I am working now in a project called 'Adult Educators as Developers of Their Own Work', where eight adult education centers (civic and workers institutes) have started to develop their teaching work using this approach. Other projects are under way.

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USING FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS TO ASSIST PROGRAM PLANNING

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Introduction

Program planning is a complex activity. Like any planning activity it requires that those doing the planning make decisions - decisions about future actions and, in the case of program planning in university continuing education, decisions about future courses, programs and events. There are a variety of models (e.g. Boyle, 1981; Houle, 1972; Knowles, 1970) that have been developed to account for the program planning process. Even though the individual models outline the process in a somewhat different way, each has identifiable decision points, stages or phases. Brundage and MacKeracher (1980) synthesized several of the program planning approaches and identified the basic stages in the process as:

- assessing needs/problems,
- stating the learning objectives,
- designing the learning activities,
- implementing the designed programs,
- assessing the programs and outcome.

Program planners must make decisions about each stage in the process. Decision makers/program planners require data to make these decisions and use various techniques to gather it. In our view the focus group interview is a technique which program planners could utilize advantageously to gather data to inform decisions. Typically, the program planning in university continuing education is controlled/initiated by expert planners, so the use of focus groups as a technique is presented in this context.

Describing the Focus Group

The focus group interview has been applied by consumer goods firms since the 1950's. Originally it was used to test new product ideas and to generate ideas for new product development. More recent applications have shown the focus group interview to be an effective research tool in a variety of marketing decision situations including those relating to pricing, promotion and advertising, and packaging and distribution. Increasingly, the focus group interview also is being used to assist the planning process in various service sector industries including health care, banking, real estate, and business consulting. (Festervand, 1985; Haddow, 1986; Herman, 1982; Hutt, 1979)

The focus group interview involves repeat interviews with groups sampled from a target population. The interview is guided by a moderator who employs a series of questions designed to probe a given topic. Data may be gathered manually or recorded using tape recorders and/or audio visual equipment. The data is then subject to content analyses.

In the design and conduct of focus group interviews, the following considerations are of critical importance:

1. Size: The optimum size of a focus group is between 8 and 12 individuals.
2. Sampling: Having decided on a research question and the kinds of information required to address the question, a decision must be made about who can best provide the needed information. A series of focus groups is normally conducted using the same discussion format but varying the characteristics of group members. Ideally, one wants homogeneity within each interview with respect to any variables which might adversely affect the dynamics of group interaction while, at the same time, achieving an overall sample that is representative of the population under study.
3. Recruitment: A successful interview depends upon willing participants and consideration must be given to the recruitment process. Even with a telephone invitation, a follow-up letter and some form of inducement, monetary or otherwise, participation rates likely will be no higher than 50% (University of Manitoba Research Ltd., 1986).
4. Selecting a facilitator: The importance of the facilitator to the group process will depend somewhat on the characteristics of the interview sample and the nature of the research question; however, considerable care needs to go into the selection of this individual. The facilitator's role is to "focus" the discussion on the research issues, probe for information and clarification, control dominant group members and attempt to ensure complete participation.
5. Conducting the interview: The introduction provided to participants at the beginning of the interview should clarify their role in the process. Participants must understand that it is their personal reactions that are being sought. Confidentiality will need to be assured and the presence of any data collection devices must be revealed. Projective "warm-up" exercises, such as word association or sentence completion, can help participants to start thinking about a given subject area while making the interview situation appear less structured and less formal.

The upsurge in popularity of focus group research for both goods and service providers can be attributed to several of its characteristics:

1. It is a relatively low cost, easily designed and conducted method and results are quickly obtainable.
2. The applications of the technique are wide; it can be used to provide information on a variety of market-related questions, to generate hypotheses and to identify and pretest questionnaire items.
3. The assumption of group synergy suggests that focus group participants will provide more information and better quality information as a result of the group interaction then they will provide in individual interviews.
4. The approach is flexible; questions can be added or changed in the middle of an interview if that seems appropriate. Questions also can be changed from one interview situation to the next if emerging information warrants.
5. An additional benefit of this research technique is its public relations value. Being invited to participate in a focus group

interview can convey to the participant an interest in involving him/her in the planning process.

Research Approach

Where does the focus group interview technique fit among the variety of data collection/research techniques used by program planners? In the broadest sense, the approaches (paradigms) to research can be identified as naturalistic (qualitative) and scientific (quantitative). The appropriateness of an approach is dependent on several things, including the assumptions that the researcher holds and the purpose of the research (Morgan and Smirich, 1980). The approach adopted by a researcher will, to a large degree, affect the choice of research techniques used.

Although research techniques, to an extent, may be utilized by researchers within either paradigm, certain techniques tend to be associated/affiliated with one or the other approach (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). The focus group interview is typically used as a qualitative research technique (Bodgan and Bilkin, 1982). As such, the focus group interview has certain characteristics, common to qualitative research, which are important to understand when using the technique. These characteristics are outlined below as adapted from Bodgan and Bilkin (1982):

Basic assumptions/goals:
- the research is to gain understanding,
- the concepts are grounded/developed within the context of the situation,
- often the research is exploratory,
- the results are not usually generalizable beyond the situation studied.

Design:
- is evolving and flexible (within an interview),
- is peculiar to each situation,
- may be one of a number of research techniques bringing data to bear on a decision.

Data:
- is descriptive,
- is often stated in the respondents' own words.

Sample:
- is small - 8 to 12 per interview,
- may not be representative.

Role of researcher:
- is closely associated with participants, particularly if the program planner/researcher is the moderator.

Instruments:
- often includes a tape recorder or other recording devices, as well as the researcher/moderator.

Data analysis:

- utilizes methods of analysis which are commonly referred to as content analysis,
- models, themes, and concepts emerge from the data rather than by 'a priori' determination.

The Manitoba Experience

In the fall of 1986, the Management Studies Section, Continuing Education Division, The University of Manitoba, began exploring ways of improving its communications with and offerings to large corporate clients. One technique that was adopted to gather data involved conducting focus group interviews with a sample of corporate training and development personnel from large organizations in Winnipeg. The purpose of the interviews was to investigate corporate attitudes toward external training consultants and to determine whether or not an opportunity existed for the university to offer specialized consulting services in areas like needs assessment, curriculum design, program evaluation and marketing.

Three focus group interviews were conducted. The sample was selected to include training and development personnel from organizations which support employees in the Section's management certificate programs. Personalized letters of invitation were mailed to potential participants and followed up with a telephone call. The invitation asked them to participate in a focus group interview on the topic "Working with Outside Training Consultants". They were told that participants would be provided with a summary of the focus group discussions.

The questions were designed to probe a number of issues: circumstances leading to the use of outside training consultants; attributes sought in outside training consultants; and, organizational expectations and problems encountered in the use of outside training consultants. Staff members of the Section facilitated the sessions and data were recorded on flip charts.

The data provided considerable insight into the kinds of opportunities and problems which would be encountered in attempting to establish a specialized training consulting service through the Continuing Education Division. For example, although organizations use training consultants for a wide variety of specialized services, the Continuing Education Division was perceived to be a provider of "whole programs" and not component services. As such, one objective of the promotion of such services would have to be to change the perception of the University's role in corporate training among key decision makers in organizations. The data also resulted in the development of a "checklist" to be used when considering the services of outside training consultants. The checklist, entitled "Working with Training Consultants: Key Questions", was distributed to focus group participants as a summary of the focus group discussions.

In addition to providing the researchers with insight into the viability of the training consulting service option, focus groups provided valuable networking opportunities with key training and development personnel in corporate organizations served by the Management Studies Section.

Conclusion

As a qualitative market research technique, the focus group interview has a number of characteristics which fit the style of adult and continuing education and which make it suitable for use in university continuing education program planning. It is a flexible, easy to use, collaborative, responsive, and participative approach to gathering data. While its use in continuing education program planning has been limited to date, the technique has become an important part of the planning process in a variety of service sector industries. Given the positive endorsement of the focus group interview provided by this paper, it is important to remind prospective users of the following:

- the approach is essentially diagnostic in nature. It allows the researcher to "snoop" around the feelings, thinking, and language of the group of people; however, further research and confirming data also should be used to support findings obtained through this technique.
- effective use of the technique requires that program planners become knowledgeable about research question design, group facilitation, and methods of content analysis.

In our view, the focus group interview can provide continuing educators with an effective research tool for assisting the program planning process.

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LE QUESTIONNEMENT SPONTANE DE L'ADULTE DANS UNE SITUATION D'APPRENTISSAGE INFORMEL, LA VISITE DE MUSEE

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Une commission de l'Association américaine des musées recommandait récemment (Bloom et al., 1984) que, pour comprendre toutes les dimensions de l'apprentissage au musée, de nouvelles méthodes et de nouveaux instruments, qui vont au-delà de ceux développés pour la salle de cours, sont requis. Cette commission recommandait que l'on mette l'accent sur les recherches pouvant mener à une meilleure compréhension du processus d'apprentissage du visiteur de musée.

Ce besoin de circonscrire de meilleure façon l'expérience d'apprentissage au musée n'est pas nouveau (Kurylo, 1976). Cependant, la plupart des chercheurs ne s'intéressent qu'aux résultats, en terme de comportement et d'évaluation, tout en supposant que le processus d'apprentissage est le même qu'à l'école où le milieu est plus coercitif qu'au musée (Alt et Griggs, 1984). Au musée, le visiteur, et particulièrement l'adulte, est libre de ses agissements ce qui lui permet de réaliser ou non les apprentissages qui lui sont proposés. De plus, les attentes des visiteurs sont tout aussi diversifiées que leur bagage de formation. Les apprentissages qu'il y réalisera ne font l'objet d'aucune évaluation formelle menant à une certification, non plus, sauf dans quelques rares cas, à résoudre des problèmes particuliers de sa vie.

Le concepteur d'exhibit ne peut espérer avoir un contrôle aussi grand comme certains le supposent (Shettel, 1973; Screven, 1974), sur le comportement et les apprentissages du visiteur, comme c'est le cas de l'enseignant face à son élève en classe. On ne peut espérer non plus réaliser, auprès du visiteur, une analyse de besoin, au sens strict, tel que proposée par certains auteurs (Collins, 1981). Le visiteur n'est pas en situation de résolution de problème.

L'apprentissage au musée est centré sur les objets qui forment l'exhibit. Il faut donc pour en comprendre le processus, investiguer de plus près la relation qui existe entre le visiteur et l'objet. Cette relation peut être envisagée sous plusieurs aspects dont un nous semble particulièrement important en éducation. Cet aspect est celui des questions que se posent les visiteurs devant les objets de musée.

En muséologie le questionnement spontané a généralement été négligé par la recherche. On s'entend très bien pour souligner le fait que pour qu'une visite soit active, l'exhibit doit susciter des questions chez le visiteur (Wittlin, 1971; Tressel, 1980). Cependant, les questions que l'on entend susciter ne sont pas tant celles qui viendraient spontanément au visiteur que celles que le muséologue veut que celui-ci se pose. Cette situation a mené à l'élaboration de toute une batterie d'instruments pour atteindre ce but (Screven, 1975). Les auteurs qui mentionnent le questionnement spontané dans leurs écrits d'opinion ne le font que très brièvement, le considérant comme un questionnement naïf (Carr, 1985) ou encore que de portée concrète, faisant rarement appel à l'abstraction(chez les enfants Rosenfeld, 1979; Laetsch et al., 1980).

Le manque d'intérêt des auteurs sur le questionnement du visiteur découle probablement du fait qu'on a traditionnellement mis l'emphase en recherche sur le potentiel d'enseignement de l'exhibit plutôt que sur le potentiel d'apprentissage du visiteur. Pourtant il serait beaucoup plus souhaitable que l'information qui est présente dans un exhibit de musée soit axée sur les bénéfices que peut en retirer le visiteur. Un bénéfice important que le visiteur devrait pouvoir retirer de son interaction avec un exhibit serait de pouvoir trouver des réponses à ses questions, ce qui lui permettrait de réaliser des apprentissages signifiants pour lui. Cela serait préférable à la situation où on lui présente des réponses aux questions posées par le muséologue et dont il n'est pas certain qu'elles soient signifiantes pour le visiteur.

Les travaux sur le questionnement spontané, dans le domaine de l'éducation et de la pédagogie, ne semblent guère pouvoir s'appliquer à la situation muséale. Une recension des écrits dans ce domaine a révélé que les recherches ne portent que sur les enfants en milieu formel d'enseignement. Elles se regroupent en deux catégories. Dans la première, on trouve des recherches portant sur l'entraînement des enfants à produire des questions pendant des analyses de textes écrits (Wong, 1985; MacDonald, 1986). Il serait donc possible que la formation académique influence la capacité des individus à générer des questions, car ces recherches proposent que l'entraînement améliore la qualité des questions générées. La deuxième catégorie de recherches portent sur les attributs des questions spontanées des enfants. Certains travaux sont axés sur les théories du développement (Berlyne et Frommer, 1966; Meyer et Shane, 1973) et s'appliquent difficilement au cas de l'adulte. D'autres tendent à démontrer que l'enfant à qui on fournit rapidement les réponses à ses questions aura tendance à en poser un plus grand nombre (Ross et Balzer, 1975).

Dans une approche où l'on considère l'apprentissage au musée sous l'angle des bénéfices que peut en retirer le visiteur et où celui-ci considère, de façon inconsciente peut-être, le rapport entre les bénéfices et l'investissement (attention, temps...) qu'il doit faire pour y arriver (Alt et Griggs, 1984), le questionnement spontané du visiteur prend de l'importance. En effet, la tâche du concepteur d'exhibits consiste alors à pouvoir fournir une réponse en n'ayant plus besoin de démontrer en plus au visiteur, comme c'est souvent le cas, quel est l'intérêt de la question puisque celle-ci serait générée par le visiteur lui-même.

On considère souvent que le questionnement spontané et les autres aspects reliés à la curiosité ne sont l'affaire que des enfants et que ces activités sont atténuées chez l'adulte. Cette conclusion s'applique, peut-être, aux activités quotidiennes où l'adultes, avec son bagage d'expériences, en connaît et en maîtrise le contenu. Tandis que l'enfant est plus souvent placé en situation de découverte suscitant chez lui des questions. Toutefois, la visite au musée correspond, pensons-nous, à une situation de découverte tant pour l'adulte que pour l'enfant.

Dans le but d'étudier de plus près le questionnement spontané de l'adulte devant des objets de musée, nous avons recueilli les questions posées par quarante-cinq (45) adultes, hommes et femmes, au cours d'une visite individuelle de quatre exhibits de sciences naturelles composés de vingt (20) coquillages marins. L'échantillon est divisé en trois groupes de quinze (15) sujets qui diffèrent par leur formation. Le premier groupe est composé de sujets ayant au plus une formation secondaire complétée; le second comprend des sujets possédant une formation en sciences naturelles; le troisième est formé de sujets de formation collégiale ou universitaire dans un autre domaine que les sciences naturelles. Suite à leur visite, nous avons mis à la disposition des sujets une personne-ressource susceptible de répondre à leurs questions.

Nous analyserons ces questions tant dans leur contenu et leur teneur que dans leur forme. Nous tenterons aussi de distinguer ce qu'il y a de rationnel et d'imaginaire dans leur questionnement. Nous comparerons les questions posées dans les trois groupes de sujets afin de voir s'il existe un type ou plusieurs types de questions propres à chacun d'eux.

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ENSURING "GUIDANCE AND CONTROL": THE CARNEGIE CORPORATION AND THE 'FOUNDING' OF ADULT EDUCATION†

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Introduction

With the spectre of free trade and further cultural assimilation haunting Canada, this is not a propitious time for a foreigner to highlight American sponsorship of Canadian adult education. However, in the formative years of organized adult education in Canada, the direction of development was significantly influenced by the Carnegie Corporation and its "chosen instrument", the American Association of Adult Education (AAAE). Between 1926 and 1935, $122,500 US was granted for the purpose of adult education in Canada and Newfoundland: Newfoundland Adult Education Association ($22,500); Frontier College ($10,0000; Ontario WEA ($10,000); Acadia University Extension ($15,000); St. Francis Xavier's "Antigonish project" ($48,000); AAAE ($16,000).‡ This last grant was for the purpose of establishing a Canadian organization cast in the image of the American Association, but was funded as an AAAE project!

Another foreigner, Armstrong (1968), details this American role in the formation of the Canadian Association of Adult Education (CAAE); this is a descriptive and semi-evaluative study, however, and offers only limited, interpretive, theoretical insights. Although this thesis is frequently cited, the subsequent 'nativistic' tendency in Canadian adult education historiography has been inclined to relegate further the American influence to uncritical observations and reductionist footnotes. The result is a distorted popular memory. All grants for adult education purposes, including those to Canada, were awarded only on the recommendation of the AAAE which for 16 years from 1926 stood to the Carnegie Corporation in the relationship of "advisor and critic." Understanding this is a necessary prelude to interpreting the involvement of American Association officers, such as Morse Cartwright and Gustav Beck, in Canadian adult education. The purpose of the study reported here was to examine critically the symbiotic relationship between Carnegie and the AAAE by revisiting the circumstances of the founding of the American Association. This summary paper offers an interpretive historical sketch that seeks to identify the contours of the ideological framework within which organized adult education was fashioned.

Theoretical framework

In general terms, the theoretical orientation of the study was informed by insights derived from contemporary, neo-Marxist, British historical sociology, in particular, the works of Edward Thompson, Raymond Williams and some of those associated with the Birmingham Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies, especially Richard Johnson. In an essay on a "hundred years of culture and anarchy", Williams (1980) writes of two streams in liberal thought. The first emphasizes excellence and humane values but at the same time is distrustful of popular culture and politics which are seen as a threat to those values: Mathew Arnold's *Culture and anarchy*. The second holds the same values, but also affirms the democratic impulse and the extension of popular education; implicitly, "its enemies were the political and economic system, the manipulators, the anti-educators" (p. 5). This idea of two traditions, partially in contention and yet partially in alliance, served as a way to think theoretically about the making of organized adult education in the United States.

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†Because of space limitations, citations are limited. More extensive references are provided in my report to the Syracuse Kellogg Project (Law, 1988).

‡A number of other Carnegie grants were not classified as 'adult education' and therefore fall outside the scope of this study.

The formation of the AAAE

The 'facts' of the formation of the AAAE are well recorded (Cartwright, 1935; Grattan, 1955; Knowles, 1955, 1962; Stubblefield, 1988), even if largely forgotten. In June 1924, Frederick Keppel, the relatively new president of Carnegie, convened a meeting of people interested in adult education. Out of this emerged an Advisory Commitee and from that an Executive Committee of six: Charles Beard, Alfred Cohn, C. R. Dooley, Eduard Lindeman, Everett Dean Martin and James E Russell.† A number of studies of adult education were launched -with Carnegie funding- and a series of regional conferences convened. On 26 March 1926, the Association's founding conference was held in Chicago. A short time later, Cartwright, Keppel's assistant at Carnegie, was appointed Executive Director.

Cartwright and Knowles credit Keppel with the initiative; Grattan claims that the idea of involving Carnegie in adult education was already percolating within the Corporation before Keppel's appointment. Stubblefield, relying on recently published secondary sources, makes much the same argument as Grattan. Clearly there was some earlier thinking within the Corporation about extending its role, but the weight of evidence still favours the thrust of Cartwright's account. First, he was an insider; second, his version and variations of it were published when all the principal players were alive: it was the 'received history'; third, there is revealing comment by Keppel in his 1941 Annual Report that I have never seen referenced by adult education historians: "Though the Board authorized the entry of the Corporation into the *terra incognita* of adult education in 1925 with some misgivings, it soon recognized the importance and timeliness of the step undertaken" [my emphasis] (p. 19).

"Timeliness" cues us to the social backdrop. The first quintile of this century was marked by tremendous social and political ferment. It was an age of popular, often radical politics. In America a dozen socialisms bloomed; within organized labour there were several militant tendencies. One reaction was repression. Strikes were often met with violence; socialists were jailed; legislative investigations were conducted into 'subversion'; 'loyalty oaths' were begun to be demanded of teachers. A democrat, Keppel's was not a strident voice. He sought to find a 'middle way'; this was a time to promote 'responsible leadership'; education was the key. In a sense, he might be thought of as a 'pragmatic Arnold'. Shortly after launching his adult education initiative, he explained his moves in terms of a concern that this expanding area of practice had "grown up outside our best educational traditions and leadership, and so without the guidance and control by which it might have profited" (1926, p. 23).

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†Dean of Teachers College, Columbia, Russell chaired this committee, was first president of the AAAE (1926-1930), and then Chairman -an active, fulltime role- until his death in 1936.

The extent to which Keppel was influenced by European developments is a matter of disagreement. Knowles (1955) claims he visited Europe in 1924 to "inspect" national adult education movements, but I have been unable to corroborate that. According to Cartwright, Keppel was influenced by the British *1919 Report* and a collection of essays edited by Stanley (1923). Grattan challenges Cartwright's claims; Stubblefield makes no reference to them. I tend to side with Cartwright. It seems that Keppel's interest in adult education was stimulated by American considerations, but once having made the decision to become involved he looked to Europe for models. There is no doubt that he found the British Oxford Reformist/Workers' Education Association (WEA) alliance attractive. University affiliated intellectuals provided leadership; its ideology reflected liberal values and mild social social democratic politics; and it emphasized education and leadership as the core incredients of a new 'middle way'.

Keppel turned to two clusters of liberals to advise him on how to implement his ideas. The anchor person was Russell whom Keppel described as "a man with an uncanny instinct for concerning himself with the education of tomorrow" (p. 15). Prior to World War I, Russell's interest had been the professionalization of education. But from around 1918 he had become increasingly conncerned with formulating a "more definitely democratic and social objective for education" (Curti, 1959, p. 552). During the Depression, he wrote of adult education as a means of preventing the breakdown of the existing system and consequential social revolution. Another key player was Martin. An elitist, he was an unrepentent subscriber to Arnold's vision of "culture or anarchy." Martin distrusted democracy and scorned "the mob"; America had been in cultural and social decline since Jackson's presidency (1828); it was still sinking. Adult education's redemptive task, hopeless though it may be, was to reassert the values and culture of 'civilization' and to restore the 'quality leadership' of the enlightened. Martin's influence should not be underestimated; many of his basic ideas were endorsed by Keppel, Cartwright and, one infers, Russell.

The other cluster revolves around Beard. Much of the education that had "grown up outside" the established traditions was worker education; much of this was associated with various socialist groups, but within this movement there were different emphases and political affilliations. Beard was in the thick of this. In 1899, with Walter Vrooman, he founded Ruskin Hall at Oxford University. After working in England for a couple of years, he returned to the United States and in 1906 was closely involved with the establishment in New York of the Rand School which was based on the Ruskin model. Over the next 15 years or so, he and Mary Beard were active in various aspects of worker education. In 1917, while Keppel was still Dean of Columbia College, Beard resigned his professorship in protest at the firing of a pacifist colleague. This embroiled him in a long, bitter feud with Columbia's president, Nicholas Butler, a close friend of Keppel. A short time later, Beard, along with Dewey, James Harvey Robinson and Veblen founded the New School for Social Research, again incurring the wrath of Butler who accused them of being "a little bunch of disgruntled intellectuals setting up a fly-by-night radical counterfeit of education" (Nore, 1983, p. 39). In 1921, the New School sponsored the formation of the Workers' Education Bureau; the model was the British WEA's Workers' Education Trade Union Committee (WETUC). Beard again played a leading role. A former student, Spencer Miller, was appointed director and the Beards sponsored him on a visit to Britain where they introduced him to their friends in the WEA. Beard chaired, and Lindeman, Martin, Miller and Robinson were members of, the WEB's publications committee. The Bureau subsequently secured American Federation of Labor endorsement; by the time of Keppel's initiative, therefore, the Bureau was well placed strategically to exercise a moderating influence over a growing and potentially militant area of adult education.

Keppel probably had to mend some broken fences to tap the cluster of radicalish intellectuals around Beard, although Martin already had some association with them and there is the suggestion in Curti that Russell had considerable time for Dewey. Further, without wishing to deny their radical reformism, it is clear from their writings and from Beard's personal friendships, that these American intellectuals had a lot in common with those in Britain who provided much of the intellectual leadership of the WEA. Finally, despite their more radical politics, Beard and his colleagues shared with Keppel, Martin and Russell much the same liberal values and a common class location. Thus by 1926, Keppel had knitted together a pragmatic alliance of liberal and mildly radical reformist intellectuals which, in association with educational specialists and a few corporate representatives, was to place an indelible stamp on the tone and direction of emerging organized adult education.

A number of early publications illustrate how this worked in practice. I think the pivotal work is the now almost completely neglected study by Nathanial Peffer (1926), *New schools for older students*. This was one of the original reports commissioned by Keppel's advisory committee. In it Peffer critically appraises a range of adult educational agencies. The most telling sections are those dealing with worker and political education. Here we see the weight placed on British experiences. Peffer recounts the split in England between the WEA/Oxford alliance and the radical Labour College movement (Plebs League); he suggests that the WEA's WETUC represents a "middle way." The American WEB is then presented in much the same light: as a "national clearing house of the movement and its official center" (p. 213). In effect, Peffer combs worker education with normative teeth. He is not critical of the Rand School or the radicalish Brookwood College, but impliies, nevertheless, that such partisan education fell outside the unspoken criteria for funding that was in formation. Subsequent patterns of funding, including, I would argue the Canadian, reflect the tone and direction that was emerging as early as the Peffer study.

Conclusion

This study illustrates how neo-Marxist theoretical insights, such as those of Williams, can inform interpretive histories of the formative years of organized adult education in North America. The significance of this study is that it finds that the alliance of two streams of liberal thought within the AAAE did not develop by accident, but was deliberately constructed by Keppel and Russell. This has implications not only for future studies in adult education, but also for research in 'labour studies' which often fails to make links between Carnegie sponsorship of labour education and organized adult education.

The study also offers interpretive insights that might prompt a critical reappraisal of aspects of Canadian adult education history. Space precludes outlining here the further development of the American movement's ideology during the 1920s and early 1930s. But it fits a pattern: an ongoing interest in British ideas -in the main those of Jacks and Mansbridge- and a growing interest in ideas from Scandinavia. In the latter case, both the residual themes associated with Danish Folk High Schools and the social democratic conceptualization of the worker as citizen propounded by the Swedish educator, Rickard Sandler. Further, around the time of the CAAE's creation, there was some tension within the American Association with respect to the radical progressivism of George Counts and the *Social Frontier* group. Cartwright was especially critical of this point of view which he saw as undermining 'liberal education'. I believe that unless Canadian adult educators engage this American history, they will fail to understand their own.

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LES ENSEIGNANTS ET LES MUSEES

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Depuis 1985, il y a à la Faculté des sciences de l'éducation de l'Université de Montréal un cours intitulé "Education et ressources communautaires", qui porte sur les lieux d'ordre muséal (A. Lefebvre, 1986). Il a été donné à six reprises et suivi par une centaine d'étudiants, des éducateurs en perfectionnement qui enseignent à tous les niveaux les disciplines les plus diverses.

Dans ce cours, l'enseignant est invité à se familiariser avec les lieux d'ordre muséal en vue de parfaire sa culture personnelle d'abord, et, par là, de perfectionner son agir comme professionnel, de manière à utiliser ce qu'il a appris dans ses interventions et d'amener ses étudiants à faire une place plus importante au musée dans leur vie. C'est dire que cet enseignant doit être avant tout attentif à son comportement comme adulte visiteur, comportement dont il s'efforce de devenir aussi conscient que possible au moyen de discussions en équipe, en plénière ou de la rédaction de comptes rendus.

Les documents produits par ces enseignants permettent de connaître l'évolution de leurs attitudes vis-à-vis les lieux d'ordre muséal au fur et à mesure que les visites s'accumulent et que le cours progresse l'évolution de leur expérience et de leur comportement de visiteur. Ces documents révèlent aussi les projets d'utilisation des musées à des fins pédagogiques que font ces enseignants, de même que les modifications qu'ils désirent apporter à leurs interventions, étant donné ce que leur a appris leur expérience de visiteur.

Nous nous en tiendrons ici à l'étude, au moyen de comptes rendus, des bénéfices que tirent nos enseignants de leurs visites de lieux d'ordre muséal, et encore nous bornerons-nous seulement à trois de ces bénéfices, soit les apprentissages, les expériences d'ordre affectif, le recours à l'imaginaire, et dans le cas de quinze seulement de nos enseignants. Il s'agit de 10 femmes et de 5 hommes de 22 à 50 ans, tous de la région métropolitaine (B. et H. Lefebvre, 1987).

Les lieux d'ordre muséal visités par nos enseignants sont, dans l'ordre, le Musée des beaux-arts de Montréal, la partie de Montréal dite "Le Vieux Montréal", le Musée Sainte-Anne, le Jardin botanique de Montréal, la Maison de la culture de Notre-Dame-de-Grâce, le Musée McCord.

Les visites faites à ces musées sont pour la plupart guidées, mais le type de guide et les modalités d'intervention de celui-ci varient d'un endroit à l'autre. Voici la description de l'assistance reçue dans chaque endroit: Musée des beaux-arts: guide classique; Vieux Montréal: chaque étudiant présente un site; intervention sporadique d'un expert; Musée Sainte-Anne: visite libre, deux experts disponibles pour répondre aux questions des visiteurs; Jardin botanique: sologuide (magnétocassette) facultatif; Maison de la culture de Notre-Dame-de-Grâce: guide multifonctionnel dont les interventions varient selon la partie de la maison visitée; Musée McCord: visite libre, sans aucune assistance.

Les 15 adultes réunis pour le cours sur l'éducation et les ressources communautaires n'ont pas la même expérience des musées. Si on les classifie selon les catégories de Morris (1962) en visiteurs occasionnels, qui fréquentent parfois les expositions spéciales, en visiteurs ponctuels, c'est-à-dire en touristes qui s'arrêtent quelquefois au musée lorsqu'ils sont en voyage, et en visiteurs habituels, qui connaissent bien les collections d'un musée ou d'un type de musée, on obtient les proportions suivantes: visiteurs occasionnels: 46,7%; visiteurs ponctuels: 46,6%; visiteurs habituels: 6,7%.

Le cours à l'intérieur duquel les visites se sont déroulées est ainsi structuré. De 9:00 h. à 12:30 h., les étudiants se retrouvent à l'université. D'abord, ils échangent sur la visite faite la semaine précédente, puis ils explorent, la plupart du temps au moyen d'exercices ou de mises en situation, l'un des cinq thèmes suivants: l'apprentissage, l'information et diverses façon de la communiquer, l'imaginaire, la fascination, la présentation des objets. Le reste de la matinée est consacré à des tâches diverses, dont la discussion de questions apportées par les étudiants ou la présentation de travaux de ceux-ci. Le lunch est pris en commun et suivi de la visite au musée, qui se termine vers 17:00 heures.

Dans ce cadre, ont été produits 89 comptes rendus de visites. Aucune directive précise n'est donnée par le professeur, sinon de rédiger dans la semaine qui suit, un rapport de la visite effectuée. A plusieurs reprises, l'un ou l'autre des étudiants a demandé des consignes plus précises. Cette demande est toujours restée sans réponse, mais à partir de la troisième visite, le professeur a souligné des éléments qu'il avait trouvés dans les comptes rendus de la visite précédente.

Nous nous en tiendrons ici au nombre de notations que contiennent les comptes rendus de visites concernant trois types de bénéfices: 1) les apprentissages; 2) les expériences d'ordre affectif; 3) l'imaginaire. Comment expliquer la fréquence des notations selon les divers lieux d'ordre muséal à ces trois points de vue? Dans l'état actuel des connaissances, la chose est impossible tant on sait peu de choses des bénéfices que tirent les adultes de leurs visites. (Monroe, Daniel, 1977) Nous nous contenterons, pour notre part, de nous livrer au "jeu des hypothèses" (Barret, 1984) à partir des comptes rendus. Ce jeu, croyons-nous, n'est pas gratuit; nous pensons même qu'il peut nous permettre, dans une certaine mesure, de fonder des hypothèses fécondes.

Commençons par les apprentissages. Voici la fréquence des notations selon les lieux visités: Vieux Montréal: 56; Musée des beaux-arts: 52; Jardin botanique: 37; Musée Sainte-Anne: 34; Maison de la culture: 24; Musée McCord: 11. Comment expliquer ces chiffres? Nos visiteurs ont-ils appris plus de choses à se promener dans le Vieux Montréal parce qu'ils disposaient d'un guide écrit (Montréal: Le Vieux Montréal à pied, Ville de Montréal, 1984, 27 pages), parce que chacun, à tour de rôle, avait à présenter un site à ses camarades, parce qu'on était en présence de phénomènes concrets, parce que le fait d'avoir à franchir à pied les distances séparant les divers sites est de nature à multiplier les interactions des participants? S'ils ont appris presque autant de choses au Musée des beaux-arts, est-ce, au contraire, parce que l'institution et les oeuvres qu'elle contient leur étaient peu familières, ou encore qu'ils ont fait une visite guidée par un professionnel?

S'ils ont appris notablement moins de choses au Jardin botanique, est-ce parce qu'on apprend moins avec un audio-guide qu'avec un guide en chair et en os, qu'on peut interrompre, questionner, qu'il s'agisse d'un guide professionnel ou du camarade servant de guide, et cela, même si les collections d'un jardin botanique leur sont plus familières que celles d'un musée des beaux-arts? Mais les bêtes qu'on trouve au Musée Sainte-Anne nous sont aussi plus familières que les oeuvres d'un musée des beaux-arts. Si les notations concernant le Musée Sainte-Anne ne sont pas plus nombreuses, est-ce parce que des animaux empaillés excitent peu la curiosité (aurait-on appris davantage dans un jardin zoologique?), même si nos visiteurs avaient à leur disposition deux biologistes très au fait de la collection du musée et avec qui ils pouvaient causer familièrement?

S'ils ont encore moins appris à la Maison de la culture, est-ce parce que l'agent culturel, pour son introduction, les a tenus trop longtemps debout? Pourtant, il leur a ensuite fait faire un tour du propriétaire que tous ont fort goûté. Est-ce parce qu'une maison de la culture, c'est une bibliothèque comme les autres et un musée réduit à une seule salle d'exposition? Est-ce parce que cette salle est meublée par une exposition de sculptures "modernes" dont on ne pouvait pas tirer grand chose, même quand on les goûtait? Est-ce enfin parce qu'il y a moins à apprendre là que dans les autres lieux muséaux? Cette hypothèse tient-elle si l'on considère que le musée McCord a provoqué encore moins d'apprentissage que la Maison de la culture? Le peu d'apprentissages réalisés dans ce musée s'expliquent par le fait que la personne-ressource qui devait rencontrer nos visiteurs n'a pu se présenter, et cela, même si ce musée est très didactique? Mais serait-ce justement parce que ce musée est trop didactique qu'on y a peu appris?

Voici la fréquence des notations d'ordre affectif selon les visites: Musée des beaux-arts: 55; Vieux Montréal: 28; Maison de la culture: 17; Jardin botanique: 16; Musée Sainte-Anne: 16; Musée McCord: 7. Pourquoi les manifestations d'ordre affectif sont-elles si nombreuses au Musée des beaux-arts? Est-ce parce qu'on était isolé du fait de suivre le guide? Est-ce parce que les beaux-arts, plus que tout, sont de nature à nous mettre en rapport avec nos sentiments, qu'ils soient positifs ou négatifs? Est-ce que parce que le Musée des beaux-arts, qu'on connaît peu, suscite beaucoup de sentiments négatifs? Est-ce parce que le guide a suscité beaucoup de sentiments de tous ordres?

Si les comptes rendus sur la visite du Vieux Montréal contiennent moitié moins de témoignages d'ordre affectif que le Musée des beaux-arts, est-ce parce qu'une ville, même une ville-musée, suscitent moins de sentiments quels qu'ils soient qu'un musée des beaux-arts? Ou est-ce parce que les visiteurs du Vieux Montréal pouvaient s'exprimer à satiété en marchant d'un site à l'autre, comme au moment de la pause de l'avant-midi, comme pendant l'heure du lunch? Est-ce parce que le fait de jouer chacun son tour le rôle de guide provoque surtout des sentiments positifs, sentiments qu'on n'éprouve pas le besoin de révéler? Si la Maison de la culture suscite moitié moins de sentiments que le Vieux Montréal, est-ce parce que, de par sa jeunesse, l'institution a quelque chose d'aseptique, même si l'exposition de sculptures "modernes" a provoqué l'enthousiasme chez les uns, la répulsion chez les autres?

Si le Jardin botanique n'a pas suscité plus de notations d'ordre affectif que la Maison de la culture en dépit du fait que les plantes soient liés à la vie quotidienne depuis l'enfance, est-ce parce que chacun était isolé avec son audio-guide (mais on l'était aussi par le guide au Musée des beaux-arts)? Si le Musée Sainte-Anne n'a pas suscité plus de notations que la Maison de la culture, est-ce à cause des animaux empaillés et de la présentation vétuste du musée. Mais s'il en a suscité autant que le Jardin botanique, est-ce parce qu'il s'agissait tout de même d'animaux et que, comme les plantes, les animaux sont liés à la vie quotidienne depuis l'enfance, à moins que ce ne soit parce qu'on pouvait s'exprimer librement avec les camarades et les personnes-ressources? Si le Musée McCord, enfin, a suscité moitié moins de sentiments que la Maison de la culture, que le Jardin botanique et le Musée Sainte-Anne, est-ce parce que le musée, pourtant beau, est tout de même un peu froid? Est-ce parce qu'on a attendu en vain la personne-ressource qu'on devait y rencontrer.

Voici la fréquence des notations relatives à l'imaginaire selon les lieux visités: Musée des beaux-arts: 20; Jardin botanique: 15; Vieux Montréal: 14; Musée McCord: 14; Musée Sainte-Anne: 13; Maison de la culture: 6. Si le Musée des beaux-arts vient en premier lieu, avant le Jardin botanique, le Vieux Montréal, le Musée McCord et le Musée Sainte-Anne, est-ce parce que, plus que les objets de la vie quotidienne, les oeuvres d'art ont le don de rappeler des événements passés, de faire remonter des souvenirs personnels, de stimuler l'imagination, et ce, même si, comme dans le cas de ce musée, l'institution est peu familière aux visiteurs? Est-ce à cause du discours du guide?

Si le Jardin botanique, avec ses plantes vivantes, n'est pas plus stimulant pour l'imagination que le Musée Sainte-Anne avec ses animaux empaillés, est-ce parce que l'audio-guide a bloqué les visiteurs tout autant que les animaux empaillés? Si le Vieux Montréal et le Musée McCord ne sont pas plus stimulants que le Jardin botanique et que le Musée Sainte-Anne, est-ce parce que les sites et les objets du passé, parce que trop loin d'eux, ne favorisent guère chez nos visiteurs ni le rappel de faits passés ni la réminescence et donnent peu de prise à l'imagination? Et si la Maison de la culture vient au dernier rang, est-ce parce que son histoire est trop récente et qu'elle ne fait pas vraiment partie du monde de nos visiteurs? Est-ce parce que son exposition de sculptures trop modernes, même pourceux qui l'ont appréciée, ne pouvait permettre à l'imaginaire de jouer, aux souvenirs personnels d'affleurer, aux événements du passé de surgir?

Quant à la fréquence de toutes les notations retenues dans ce commentaire, les visites se classent ainsi: Musée des beaux-arts: 137; Vieux Montréal: 98; Jardin botanique: 68; Musée Sainte-Anne: 63; Maison de la culture: 47; Musée McCord: 32. On aurait pu s'attendre à trouver au premier rang le Vieux Montréal, suivi, mais d'assez loin par le Jardin botanique et le Musée Sainte-Anne, précédant de loin le Musée des beaux-arts et le Musée McCord, la Maison de la culture traînant loin en arrière. Pourquoi? Tout simplement parce que, dans le cas du Vieux Montréal, il s'agit d'une visite en plein air avec des amis, parce que le Jardin botanique et le Musée Sainte-Anne parlent présentement des êtres vivants, parce que le Musée des beaux-arts fait un peu peur aux non initiés, parce que les collections du Musée McCord font un peu sophistiqué pour dire le moins, parce que la Maison de la culture manque d'histoire encore une fois. D'où peut venir qu'il n'en soit pas ainsi?

Si le Vieux Montréal ne vient pas en tête, est-ce parce que sa visite, justement, a été si agréable, si enrichissante à tous points de vue, qu'on en fut satisfait au point qu'on n'a pas éprouvé le besoin de s'exprimer très au long sur le sujet, les peuples heureux n'ayant pas d'histoire? Si le Musée des beaux-arts se place au premier rang, est-ce précisément parce que l'institution était peu familière aux visiteurs, ou est-ce parce qu'on disposait d'un guide professionnel? Ce qui, s'ajoutant aux oeuvres elles-mêmes, entraîna toutes sortes d'apprentissages, inspira toutes sortes de notations d'ordre affectif, nourrit l'imaginaire? Si le Musée McCord vient après la Maison de la culture, est-ce parce que la douceur même de sa présentation serait peu stimulante, alors que l'exposition de sculptures "modernes" à la Maison de la culture ne pouvait laisser personne indifférent?

Nous avons cru important de livrer ces hypothèses parce qu'elles mettent en relief la complexité de la situation muséale, l'importance des dispositions du visiteur et le rôle mineur que semble jouer le type de musée ou le type de guide comme déterminants des bénéfices d'un passage au musée.

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LE VISITEUR DE MUSÉE

BERNARD LEFEBVRE et HÉLÈNE LEFEBVRE

Le musée réunit des collections d'arts, d'histoire, de sciences naturelles ou de faits sociaux. Les muséologues en classent les éléments et les regroupent selon des critères qui facilitent leur compréhension. Un personnel diversifié aménage ensuite les exhibits. Tout est prêt pour le public, mais s'il n'afflue pas au musée, ce dernier a-t-il rempli adéquatement sa fonction?

Nous limiterons notre étude aux visiteurs de musée, car il manque des données concernant les intérêts, les attitudes, les besoins ou les caractéristiques socio-économiques de la majorité du public qu'ils desservent (Giguère, 1985). C'est pourquoi nous tenterons d'établir les catégories de visiteurs. Puis, nous tenterons d'identifier comment on apprécie les visites individuelles et les visites collectives. Nous nous demanderons enfin en quoi constitue la motivation du visiteur. Notons que nous délaisserons sciemment les questions portant sur l'acquisition de connaissances, l'expression de l'affectivité et le rôle joué par l'imaginaire.

En outre des sources bibliographiques auxquelles nous réfèrerons, nous nous appuierons sur l'analyse systématique de 89 compte rendus rédigés par quinze étudiants inscrits à la maîtrise en éducation qui, dans le cadre du cours intitulé Éducation et ressources communautaires, ont effectué la visite de six musées de types différents. Il s'agit du musée des Beaux-Arts de Montréal, du musée ethnographique McCord, du musée de sciences naturelles Georges-Préfontaine de l'Université de Montréal, du Vieux Montréal, de la Maison de la culture de Notre-Dame-de-Grâce et du Jardin Botanique de Montréal. Cette activité s'est déroulée à l'automne 1986 à l'Université de Montréal.

LES CATÉGORIES DE VISITEURS

Freese (1968) présente cinq groupes de visiteurs rencontrés dans les musées. Ce sont les connaisseurs, ceux qui ont une riche éducation générale, les artistes et les designers, les scientifiques et les étudiants et enfin le public en général. Pott (1963) distingue trois types de visiteurs: celui qui recherche une expérience esthétique, celui qui satisfait sa soif de connaissances et celui qui veut voir la réalité. Pour lui, ce public semblerait ignorer la population non avertie à moins qu'elle ne fasse partie des groupes de deux à cinq personnes. Les caractéristiques qu'il attache aux visiteurs de musée sont élitistes: le haut niveau de scolarité, les activités professionnelles, les touristes étrangers et les étudiants.

Hudson (1977) distinguent ceux qui désirent apprendre et ceux qui se rendent au musée pour se divertir. Dans ces deux catégories, il tient compte de l'intensité des visites accomplies une fois l'an, de façon ponctuelle ou habituelle. Morris (1972) propose quatre possibilités: le visiteur qui demeure près du musée, le visiteur ponctuel, le visiteur préparé et le visiteur habitué. Le Musée de la civilisation (1986) départage les visiteurs en occasionnels, réguliers et potentiels. Même s'il est malaisé de les identifier avec précision, ceux de la dernière catégorie constituent le bassin de population qui assurera le succès des expositions.

Les étudiants de deuxième cycle qui font partie de notre étude réunissent certaines des caractéristiques de Pott, vu leur niveau de scolarité, leur désir d'expérience esthétique et leur besoin de connaissance. Précisons que sur quinze étudiants, il y avait 46.7% de visiteurs occasionnels, 46.6% de visiteurs ponctuels et 6.1% de visiteurs habituels.

LE GENRE DE VISITE

Morris (1972) propose diverses modalités selon lesquelles les visiteurs fréquentent le musée. On y rencontre les solitaires, ceux qui sont accompagnés d'une personne, les petits groupes habituellement de type familial et les grands groupes. Dans le cas du groupe d'étudiants dont nous étudions les compte rendus, même s'ils faisaient leurs visites au même moment, le ode d'organisation variait d'un endroit à l'autre. Au musée des Beaux-Arts un guide officiel donnait les explications; dans le Vieux Montréal chaque étudiant assumait la charge de fournir les informations à des étapes différentes du parcours et le professeur complétait les données. C'est une visite libre au musée Georges-Préfontaine, mais des spécialistes agissaient comme personnes ressources. Les étudiants expérimentèrent le solo-guide au Jardin Botanique. Aucun guide ne les accompagna au musée McCord mais un guide les reçut à la Maison de la culture Notre-Dame-De-Grâce. A cet endroit, on leur remit des brochures explicatives.

L'analyse des commentaires fournis par les étudiants indique une nette préférence pour les visites individuelles ou en groupes restreints. On prend tout le temps voulu et chacun visite à son rythme. Il y a moins de distractions. La solitude et le silence sont bien accueillies pour se laisser imprégner par ce qu'on voit. Par contre, le solo-guide demandait un effort auditif qui diminuait l'efficacité visuelle. Certains abandonnaient l'utilisation de l'instrument pour retrouver la liberté de voir les spécimens et de lire les étiquettes dans un climat de calme et de relaxation. La prise de notes fut souvent suspendue. On sentait probablement que ce travail brouillait la communication essentielle à établir entre le visiteur et l'exhibit. C'est une expérience ultime qui tolère mal les intermédiaires (Greenglass Paul, 1981).

Ironiquement, dirions-nous que la solitude se tolère mieux à plusieurs. En effet on rapporte souvent qu'on forme de petits groupes spontanément pour échanger, pour écouter ou pour se connaître.

Des sujets expliquent qu'à l'entrée au musée il arrive souvent que l'on se déplace sans but précis. D'où la nécessité de pancartes bien préparées, d'une planification qui permet l'exploration du milieu et d'objets qui ont une grande valeur visuelle ou qui attire le regard (Screven 1985).

On remarque que plus d'un visiteur n'osent pas poser de questions au guide ou à une personne ressource. Quand il faut suivre le guide, on n'est pas libre de prolonger ses arrêts à volonté. Cette forme de visite imposer une forte concentration d'esprit. Il semblerait qu'une abondance trop grande d'informations provoquerait la baisse de l'attention. Les participants, parfois trop passifs, souffriraient de distractions. Malgré tout, certains déclarent qu'ils n'auraient pu apprécier les oeuvres sans l'assistance du guide. Un visiteur ajoute même qu'avec le guide, rien n'était à manquer.

La visite de groupe a aussi ses avantages. Lors de la visite du Vieux Montréal, on insiste sur le climat de détente, sur la participation, sur l'acquisition de connaissances et sur les réactions des membres du groupe. On rappelle les nombreux échanges qui ont eu lieu au cours de la journée et l'importance des contacts informels avec les autres. Le climat de confiance fut noté plusieurs fois. Le grand groupe se scindait en sous-groupes lors des déplacements.

Quant à la visite collective au musée des Beaux-Arts, on a glané des remarques du genre suivant: on ne voit rien; j'ai manqué le nom de l'artiste; il a fallu se tasser pour bien voir.

Suite au dépouillement que nous avons fait, il ressort que les visites effectuées individuellement ou en petits groupes furent davantage appréciées. Il serait cependant prématuré de conclure que les visites collectives sont de moindre valeur. Elles favorisent le caractère social des rencontres et dispensent une information rapide et directe.

LA MOTIVATION DU VISITEUR

Que les visiteurs déambulent seuls, en groupes restreints ou se fondent dans un grand groupe, demandons-nous pour quelles raisons ou motifs ils viennent ou reviennent plus ou moins souvent au musée. Voilà poser la question de la motivation qui correspond à tous les moyens qui accroissent l'intérêt du visiteur, sa stimulation et son plaisir (Abbey, 1976). On y distingue la motivation intrinsèque et la motivation extrinsèque. La première s'appuie sur l'utilité et la cohérence du contenu, son opportunité, sa signification pour le visiteur, la possibilité d'interaction avec l'exhibit et de contrôle sur lui de même que sur les éléments de surprise et de défi. La seconde comprend la rétro-action sur le contenu visuel et les résultats ou les privilèges acquis à la suite de réponses correctes.

Nous examinerons les raisons pour lesquelles les visiteurs fréquentent les musées puis les moyens pris par ces derniers pour motiver leur clientèle.

Le public se rend au musée pour de multiples motifs. Il veut peut-être s'instruire lui-même et sa famille, faire montre de son savoir, avoir quelque chose à dire aux amis, se restaurer ou faire une sortie par un jour de pluie. On peut aussi répondre à un réel désir d'apprendre (Screven 1985). Morris(1962) identifie quatre raisons: la curiosité provenant de l'aspect sensationnel d'une exposition, l'ambition sociale ou le prestige personnel, le désir d'accroître son éducation, l'enthousiasme naissant du contact avec l'art. Pour Bunning (1974), l'adulte visite le musée uniquement pour le plaisir et pour la valeur intrinsèque des bénéfices de l'expérience. Sa motivation dépend du temps dont il dispose pour cette activité, des raisons sociales qui l'encourage à aller au musée et des rencontres familiales ou d'amis que procure cette sortie. Le musée mise sur la volonté d'apprendre ou sur l'immédiateté du besoin. Hudson (1977) énumère trois motifs: le besoin esthétique, le besoin romanesque ou d'évasion et le besoin de connaissance.

Les motifs invoqués par les étudiants dans leurs rapports de visites sont plus d'ordre personnel que social. Ils ont aussi un caractère plus général. Enumérons-les: la disponibilité d'esprit, le goût de connaître, une curiosité aiguisée, un intérêt soutenu, la hâte ou l'envie de faire une visite, le plaisir anticipé. S'ajoute la possibilité d'activité ludique comme deviner l'utilisation d'un instrument ou mettre un titre à une oeuvre et le vérifier ensuite.

Examinons maintenant comment les musées stimulent la motivation de leurs visiteurs. Leur enthousiasme dépend de plusieurs facteurs comme l'intérêt du contenu, la qualité de la présentation, l'information et les objets (Wolf, 1980). L'effet de nouveauté agit sur le comportement et la capacité d'apprentissage. A l'inverse, il faut aussi offrir suffisamment d'éléments auxquels le visiteur est accoutumé. L'attrait d'une exposition dépend donc de l'heureux mélange de pièces nouvelles et d'autres plus connues (R.O.M., 1976 et Falk 1979).

Il faut que soient coordonnés les principes de base du design pour maintenir l'intérêt et l'attention sans fatigue. Si un exhibit doit offrir assez de stimulation, il ne doit pas non plus y en avoir trop. L'attraction visuelle, la cohérence spaciale, le sens de la continuité dans l'organisation des sensations sont autant de conditions qui assurent l'intérêt du visiteur (R.O.M., 1976).

Les compte rendus de visites comportaient aussi des moyens de motiver relevant des musées. Il s'agit de motiver à la culture, de promouvoir une nouvelle forme de diffusion, d'exploiter des thèmes et des objets qui sont attrayants et qui captent l'attention, de prévoir l'accueil du public, d'offrir un décor chaleureux et d'employer des moyens qui attirent l'attention des visiteurs, qui établissent des liens entre certains des éléments présentés et même qui prennent l'allure d'une énigme.

Voilà quels sont les visiteurs qui se présentent dans nos musées. Nous en avons établi les diverses catégories. Les modalités de visites furent ensuite analysées. Comme le visiteur entre bien volontairement au musée (Thompson, 1984) et qu'il y va pour son plaisir (Tressel, 1984), il fallait s'interroger sur les motifs qui l'attirent là et sur les moyens mis en oeuvre pour cultiver sa motivation. Rappelons-nous avec Bunning (1974) que l'homme a tendance à répéter les expériences qui lui apporte un changement, une croissance, et qui lui procure du plaisir. Le musée est un lieu récréatif d'apprentissage pour un public qui aime l'exploration, l'aventure, la découverte (Tressel, 1984).

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RÉFLEXION AU SUJET DES BÉNÉFICES DU VISITEUR DE MUSÉE

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Le musée est une institution publique dont un des rôles est de sauvegarder le patrimoine et la culture des civilisations. Il est la mémoire active du passé, du présent et de l'avenir. Mais, il a aussi pour rôle d'éduquer la population qui le fréquente. Il se doit donc d'être accessible à tous sans discrimination de classe, d'ethnie ou de niveau scolaire.

Un survol de son histoire nous fait observer qu'il fut et qu'il est toujours fréquenté par des initiés ou des érudits. Cependant, les gérants de l'Etat exigent que les deniers publics se multiplient et fassent du musée un endroit rentable, c'est-à-dire de consommation. Est-ce bien là son rôle et sa vocation?

Afin d'atteindre cet objectif, les muséologues accentuent les recherches au sujet des publics qui le fréquentent et tentent d'en attirer de nouveaux. Cette intention est louable, mais de quelles recherches s'agit-il? Et qu'en est-il de leur efficacité?

Depuis 1960, une série de rapports sur l'éducation, le rapport Tremblay, le rapport Parent, le rapport du Comité d'éducation sur la formation des adultes, ont déferlé sur le Québec, marquant l'ère éducative pour tous, l'ère de l'éducation permanente. Selon ce concept, tout citoyen doit parfaire sa formation tout au long de sa vie. Le musée n'a pas échappé à ce raz-de-marée. Les muséologues ont brandi l'étendard du rôle éducatif de leur institution et sont partis en croisade, croyant à raison ou à tort que le visiteur venait y chercher principalement une nourriture pour le cerveau. Certes le musée est un endroit de choix pour la transmission de l'information et offre un important environnement pour le communiquer (Lewis, 1980). Il présente au visiteur des alternatives sociales, technologiques et artistiques permettant de transcender les limites et de l'amener à approfondir l'expérience humaine (Kurylo, 1976). Mais il est aussi un endroit de divertissement et délectation. Dans ce sens, le visiteur retire-t-il principalement des apprentissages de sa visite au musée?

L'étude des bénéfices que retire un visiteur de sa visite au musée a été peu explorée. Les études connues traitent presque exclusivement de la clientèle et essaient d'identifier ses besoins (Musée de la Civilisation de Québec, 1985; ROM, 1976; Miles, 1986; Screven, 1975; Falk et Balling, 1973).

Aussi noble soit-elle, cette voie nous apparaît un chemin détourné pour obtenir des expositions adaptées et satisfaisantes pour le visiteur, les muséologues et l'Etat.

Voilà donc certains éléments contextuels qui ont suscité notre intérêt pour étudier la notion de bénéfice en regard du visiteur de musée. Nous décrirons ce qu'est un bénéfice et nous aborderons les résultats de la recherche que nous avons menée à ce jour. Même si plusieurs questions demeurent encore sans réponse, on ne fait pas autant de démarches sur un sujet de peu d'importance.

L'ALTERNATIVE BESOIN OU BÉNÉFICE

Dans les écrits de la psychologie éducative, le terme besoin, à l'encontre de celui de bénéfice, fut décrit avec abondance (Albou, 1975; Maslow, 1954; Tarde, 1902; Keynes, 1968). C'est donc par comparaison que nous cernerons le concept de bénéfice.

Au début de sa vie scientifique, le terme besoins avait un sens descriptif. Puis il acquit par la suite un sens de motivation, le besoin créant un déséquilibre qui force l'individu à agir de manière à rétablir cet équilibre.

Selon Barbier et Lesne (1977), le besoin a une existence objective qui correspond à une nécessité naturelle et sociale, mais il est aussi le sentiment de cette exigence, de cette nécessité. Or, la difficulté à le définir s'explique par le fait qu'il n'est pas directement observable. Même quand on le qualifie de manifeste ou d'exprimé, il demeure une variable soupçonnée, inférée, hypothétique. A cet égard, le bénéfice semble plus facilement identifiable parce qu'il résulte d'une activité concrète de l'être. Il est un résultat plutôt qu'un désir ou une intention.

Tyler (1950) définit le besoin comme la différence entre ce qu'est et ce que devrait être une situation, une proposition ou un objet. Certains auteurs ajoutent qu'il est une condition pédagogique, psychologique, social ou autre (Kaufmann, 1969; Ellis, 1970).

Le besoin se situe dans une condition sociale, politique, économique, scientifique, culturelle, pédagogique. Il est ressenti comme l'écart entre un standard désiré ou normalement accepté se rapportant à un objet de connaissance ou de recherche et ces comportements effectifs (Planty, 1982). Et d'ajouter Lefebvre lors d'un inventaire de besoins en éducation "... si nos résultats reflétaient une réalité plutôt que la façon dont cette réalité est perçue..." (Lefebvre, 1978, p. 141).

Le besoin forme la donnée de base à partir de laquelle un programme est élaboré, implanté et évalué actuellement. Quant à lui, le bénéfice est ce qui est, c'est-à-dire la réalité intellectuelle, affective, sociale, vécue par l'individu dans une situation, face à une proposition ou à l'égard d'un objet. Il devient une condition d'existence des expériences futures. Le bénéfice se base sur le vécu immédiat et concret tandis que le besoin se fonde sur une situation irréelle ou fictive, une itention du visiteur. Il ne reflète pas une différence, mais bien une réalité exprimée qui n'est toutefois pas nécessairement observable.

Si le besoin est tributaire de la personnalité et des pressions de l'environnement sur l'individu (Gardner, 1975; Stern, 1970; Murray, 1938; St-Arnaud, 1974), le bénéfice est la bonification du résultat de ces inflences puisqu'il fait suite à une activité participative.

St-Arnaud (1974) dans son modèle descriptif de la personne humaine catégorise les besoins fondamentaux, structurants et situationnels. Les premiers sont innés et communs à tous, les deuxièmes sont une modalité privilégiée par l'individu dans la satisfaction des besoins fondamentaux et les troisièmes sont ceux qui influencent la formation des besoins structurants.

Dans cette perspective, en regard du comportement utilisé dans la satisfaction d'une ou de plusieurs catégories de besoins, le bénéfice demeure ce qu'a réellement rapporté cette démarche et non seulement l'espoir d'un niveau de satisfaction. Ces descriptions nous font supposer que l'implantation d'un nouveau service ou d'une nouvelle institution dans un contexte donné nécessite un inventaire des besoins de manière à s'assurer de la nécessité de celui-ci. Dans le cas d'une institution déjà existante qui désire améliorer ses programmes ou ses services, nous croyons que l'étude des bénéfices acquis par la clientèle est une avenue porteuse d'avenir. L'implantation d'une nouvelle institution n'empêche pas d'expiciter les bénéfices déjà identifiés là où l'opération a déjà été faite. A partir du moment où nous connaissons l'impact de notre action, nous pouvons nous appuyer sur les points forts et éviter ceux qui sont plus faibles, afin d'apporter un réajustement au suivi des programmes déjà en place et d'en créer de nouveaux, parce que nous avons alors le portrait réel de la relation institution-individu.

LES BÉNÉFICES AU MUSÉEE

Quelques auteurs en muséologie ont tenté de définir ce qu'est un bénéfice pour le visiteur de musée (Johnson, 1976; Graburn, 1977; Tinsley, 1980; Davisson, 1982; Know, 1981). La synthèse de leurs écrits nous laisse perplexes quant à sa signification. Pour eux, il est de nature sociale et personnelle. Il répond à un besoin connu et provient de données nouvelles, acquises dans une ambiance agréable et détendue, suite à une activité de nature intellectuelle, sensitive ou physique. Il permet de se sentir mieux et d'affirmer sa capacité créatrice. C'est aussi la conscience de la richesse historique, artistique ou culturelle, un événement social, la connaissance des endroits, sites et monuments intéressants d'une ville. C'est aussi la satisfaction d'apprendre par soi-même. A partir de ces énoncés, un bénéfice au musée est: tout élément résiduel positif, se traduisant chez le visiteur par un comportement intellectuel ou social, réceptif ou actif, qui engendre du plaisir et des émotions positives. Ce plaisir ou ces émotions concourent au bien-être de l'individu, à son enrichissement cognitif, affectif ou social. Ils lui procurent le sentiment de s'être diverti (Dufresne-Tassé et al, 1986). Graburn (1977) apporte la dimension de l'éveil spirituel comme bénéfice. Il peut aussi être de niveau différent, passant du simple ressentir ou de l'identification d'une connaissance à son intégration dans l'action de la personne.

Aussi, on peut considérer comme bénéfice pour un individu le résultat concret, souvent observable et facilement identifiable d'une activité. Il est basé sur le vécu immédiat de la réalité exprimée résultant de la bonification des influences personnelles et du milieu. Il fait suite à une participation active ou passive et concerne tous les aspects de l'être. Il est de nature cognitive, affective ou sociale.

LA RECHERCHE ET SES CONCLUSIONS

Une recherche sur le fonctionnement intellectuel et affectif du visiteur adulte de musée a été entreprise à l'Université de Montréal. L'un des volets est l'étude des bénéfices du visiteur de musée. Une collecte de données fut effectuée à l'automne 1986 et une seconde à l'été 1987, auprès d'étudiants de deuxième cycle à la faculté des Sciences de l'éducation. Cela nous a permis d'identifier les catégories de bénéfices obtenus lors de douze visites de musées dont dix étaient de types différents. Ces visites ont été pour la plupart guidées et précédées de discussions en salle de classe. Les étudiants ont fourni des compte rendus pour chacune des visites (avec un total de 160 compte rendus). Le deuxième groupe fut également soumis à des entrevues individuelles et à une entrevue de groupe constituée de quatre étudiants. Ce sont les résultats de ces deux études que nous vous présentons.

Bien que les comptes-rendus contiennent autre chose que des bénéfices, nous retrouvons les mêmes catégories dans les deux séries soit: des apprentissages, des réactions affectives positives, des phénomènes imaginaires, des questions restées sans réponse et des implications ou applications à la vie professionnelle ou personnelle.

Les entrevues nous permettent l'hypothèse suivante. En général, il ne semble pas exister de lien direct entre les attentes des visiteurs et les bénéfices qu'ils retirent suite à la visite de musée. Les attentes sont de la nature du divertissement, du loisir, du fait de passer un bon moment, de l'ordre de la discipline nécessaire pour s'apprivoiser à un nouveau domaine culturel. Certains ont dit qu'ils s'attendaient à apprendre quelque chose, mais cela reste imprécis. Il semble qu'il suffit d'oser y entrer pour qu'il s'y passe quelque chose d'inattendu la plupart du temps.

Plusieurs ont mentionné que la visite de musée leur apportait une plus-value, un élément gratifiant difficilement identifiable. On compare la visite de musée à un concert où l'on nous offre une pièce de musique connue pour mieux nous faire accepter une pièce un peu plus difficile ou inconnue de la plupart des gens.

Bien que la majorité des expositions présentées soient basées sur des études de besoins ou d'attentes du visiteur, on nous avoue que les bénéfices acquis ne sont pas en relation directe avec les besoins exprimés.

Établir des programmes muséologiques ou des expositions à partir des besoins correspond au risque de voir ces derniers se modifier selon l'impulsion du moment et des expériences vécues. L'étude des bénéfices, de ce que le visiteur vit et retire réellement de son passage au musée, semble une avenue plus concrète et plus directe permettant d'ajuster les activités au vécu du visiteur. Son comportement est dicté par le présent et par ses expériences passées, par ses intérêts du moment, par ses habiletés et par sa perception de la situation. Les visiteurs de musées forment des groupes hétérogènes. Il est donc primordial pour les muséologues et pour l'État d'obtenir des renseignements sur ce qu'ils sont susceptibles de choisir parmi tout ce que leur offre l'institution.

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TRAINING ADMINISTRATORS OF ADULT EDUCATION: NEW AGENDAS FOR RESEARCH AND PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

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Over the past two decades there has been a growing and continuous desire on the part of members of society to have increasing access to learning opportunities. Research done by Allan Tough (1979) and others has demonstrated that most adults are frequently engaged in new learning:

> Almost everyone undertakes at least one or two major learning efforts a year and some individuals undertake as many as 15 or 20. The median is eight learning projects a year, involving eight distinct areas of knowledge and skill (Tough, p.1).

Tough's work indicates that all members of our society have developed mechanisms by which they can learn new skills, knowledge and attitudes. Clearly, the choice of mechanisms is often left to the individual adult, and the vehicle often chosen is that of a formal organization. In this context it is important to note that a study by CAAE (1982) showed that 95 percent of all Canadians who were engaged in course activities chose to participate in an organizational setting (college, university, HRD department, school system, voluntary organization, etc.).

Given the importance of formal organizations as a vehicle for adult learning it is incumbant on the field to understand the training systems in place for those who manage adult learning in these settings. What is the nature of the training that is shaping the attitudes, knowledge and skills for these educational administrators?

The purpose of this study is to explore the type of administrative training being offered in Canada to present and potential administrators of Adult Education. To do this, the paper will first describe the types of organizations that provide adult education; second, describe programs in Canada that prepare managers of adult education; and third, offer some thoughts on an agenda for research and program development in the field of Adult Education administration.

Organizing Adult Education

The field of Adult Education is based upon a fundamental belief that education is a life-long preoccupation of all people in our society. At the individual level, we know that people learn how to adapt to a wide assortment of life situations: obtaining life supporting necessities, becoming married, having children, taking a new job, learning new technologies, improving relationships, participating politically, etc. People in our society have been able to learn about these situations in the past and there is no question about their ability to learn in the future.

While these general situations have not changed over time, what has changed has been the nature by which people receive support for learning and adapting. Over the past 100 or, so years our society has changed into an organizational society. From the time we are born (usually in a hospital) to the time we are burried (often through the services of a funeral home), our lives constantly intersect with organizations. This is also true regarding organizations which support adult learning projects. Welton (1988) provides Canadians with a wonderful historical review of a few of the organizations which have helped Canadians learn and adapt to the world around them. His text provides short case studies on a wide assortment of organizations which have empowered adults by providing opportunities to learn new skills, knowledge and insights.

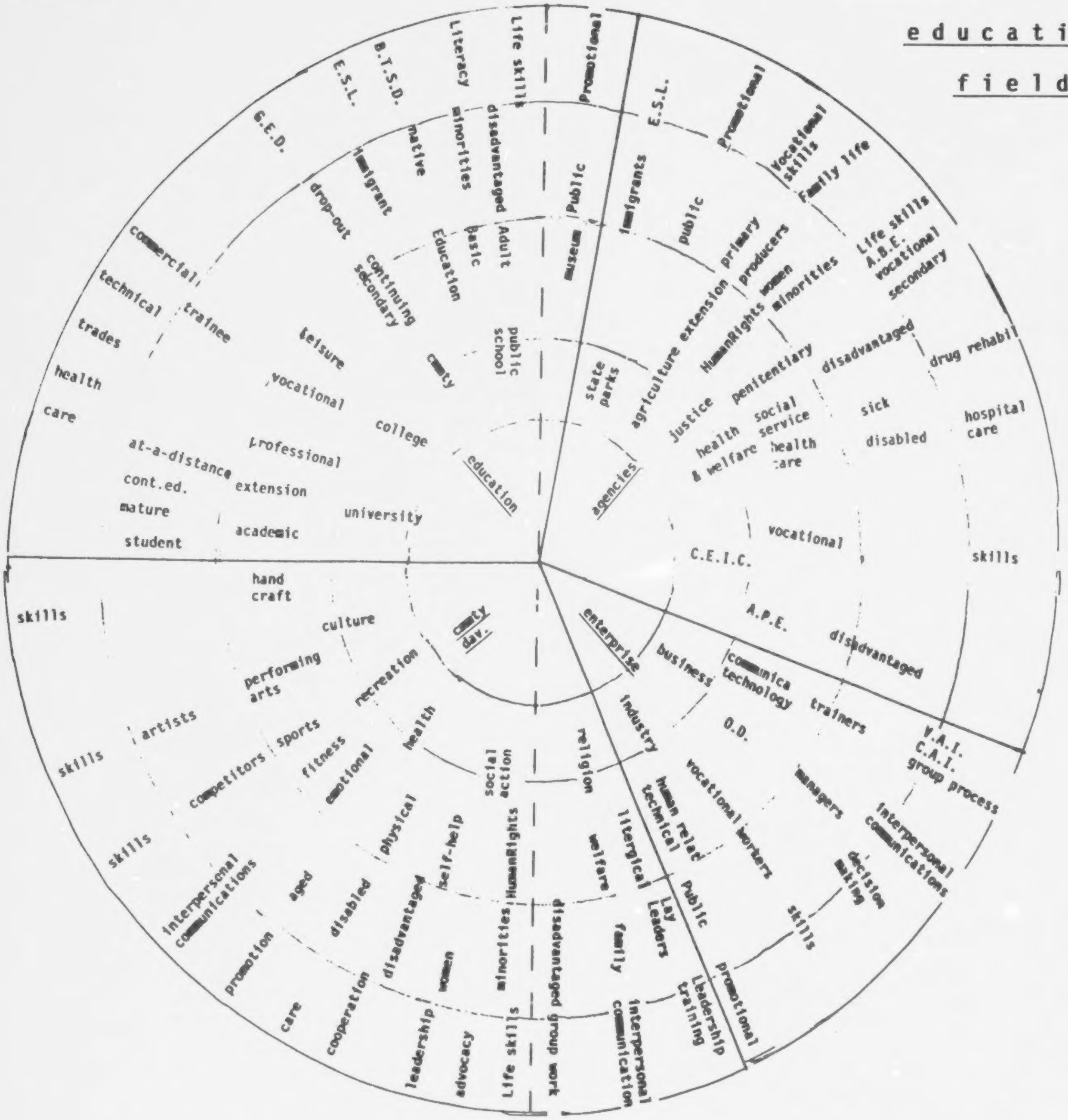
Welton's text just touches the surface of the types of organizations which are providing opportunities for adult learning. Figure 1 provides an attempt to capture the complexity of the Adult Education field and the institutions that serve the field. It illustrates that almost all forms of human organizations are providing or have the potential to provide opportunities for adult learning. They vary along many dimensions. Some (e.g. universities) have adult education as their primary purpose, while other institutions (e.g. private sector or firms) are those organizations which have not always captured how supporting adult learning furthers their own organizational goals. The purposes of these institutions vary from providing learning for employment to organizations (e.g. trade schools) which help New Canadians learn a new culture. Similarly, they vary from learning for recreation and pleasure (e.g. YMCA's) to learning for entry into one of the certificated professions. In all, today individuals are being provided more and more organizational opportunities to pursue their learning needs. Our experience tells us that growing numbers of organizations are taking up the challenge of adult learning and providing adult learning opportunities. At issue is that most of these institutions employee people who are responsible for managing a significant amount of resources to support education of adults. A survey of Canadian universities indicates that about 20% of the students enrolled in adult education training programs across Canada identify themselves as managers of adult education in their respective organizations. As the numbers and size of the organizations offering adult education services grows so does the complexity of those who are asked to manage and chart the organizational waters in this field. This requires us to ask, How do managers in these organizations learn to manage the learning of adults?

Training Managers of Adult Learning Organizations

Whether it is in a training department of a major Canadian private sector firm, or in a School Board's Adult Education Department, there is a growing number of people who are being asked to take on administrative or managerial responsibilities

Figure 1

adult education field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Family life
Life skills
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HumanRights
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penitentiary
disadvantaged
drug rehabil
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cooperation
care
promotion
recreation
sports
competitors
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performing arts
artists
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skills
skills
interpersonal communications

The pie chart consists of four circles:

- the inner circle defines the institutions which sponsor adult education
- the second circle defines the various areas of adult education
- the third circle identifies the target population
- the outer circle describes the skills taught by adult educators

for adult learning. We see this phenomenon before us almost on a daily basis: Frontier College is asked by CEIC to work on improving literacy in the work place; Canadian universities and industry are asked to set up new programs to help transfer Canadian technology to the Developing World; police departments are asked to help police officers learn how to work in an increasingly multicultural environment. The litany of situations go on and on. However, the requests for adult education programming, though clear, are far from simple. In identifying and organizing the needs of adult learners, our society is not simply asking adult educators to set up learning opportunities rather, they are also being asked to manage a wide array of resources in a turbulent environment. Frontier College will need to organize a complex array of resources and utilize these resources in planning, marketing, financing, staffing, programming and monitoring the goals of the project. This holds true for Canadian universities, the police departments, and any other institutions involved in adult education. In other words, imbedded in our society's desire to identify and meet adult learning needs is an equally important requirement of managing the resources given to meet these learning needs. Thus managers of adult learning must develop strategies for generating resources and managing these resources effectively and efficiently.

But how do Canadian managers of adult education learn these administrative skills? In general people who take a management position develop their skills both before they enter their administrative role (pre-service) or while they are carrying it out (inservice). For example, before obtaining a teaching job in most Canadian cities, people must participate in a teacher training program. It is also quite clear that even before teachers take training programs they have learned a great deal about teaching just by virtue of their participation as a student.

In educational terms people tend to learn in three types of settings (1) formal, (2) non-formal, and (3) informal. Formal training refers to institutionally based degree programs. Non-formal training refers to planned educational activities that are usually carried on outside degree programs, and informal training refers to the life experience by which everyone acquires and accumulates knowledge skills and attitudes from their daily exposure to their environment.

In Canada there are no specific formal training programs for managers of adult education. People interested in pursuing the field of administration either follow MBA, Institutional Management, Non-Profit Sector, Educational Administration or Adult Education programs and attempt to adjust the content of the programs to their particular needs. In a study of the catalogues of the major 25 Canadian MBA programs only four had courses related to managing the training functions in the private sector. With regard to institutional management and the management of the non-profit sector, a review of these programs indicates that few choices are directly associated with managing adult education. For example, in the field of educational administration only four

Canadian universities of the more than 30 offering degrees have one or more courses in managing Adult Education. Finally, in programs related to Adult Education 13 of the 21 programs in Canada had one or more courses related to managing Adult Education.

Because it appeared that programs of Adult Education had the most opportunities for formal training for administrators, a survey was taken to better understand the types of courses being offered. Table 1 (see page 6) provides a summary of this course data. In general all 13 programs offered an introduction course to managing Adult Education. The next most frequent courses were a program planning course and performance appraisal. As can be seen three offer courses in policy development, two in finance and one in marketing. This is hardly a set of programs which will train people to take on adult education management functions in the future.

As for non-formal training, once again in Canada one finds few universities offering specific training activities for Adult Education administrators, although there are a sizable number of training opportunities within associations, private sector training firms and continuing education programs. In the area of non-formal training for adult education administrators, a potpourri exists throughout the country, little of which is organized in a way that can be codified and described.

This leads to the last system of training which is the informal system. In general this training system has been and remains how the private and public sectors develop their manager of learning. In school boards, Directors of Adult Education were individuals who had moved through the ranks to this management position. The same has been true in the private sector and in institutions of higher education. The data implies that you learn how to manage adult learning settings by being in such settings and providing your own learning agenda.

In general, the learning system most often used for managers of adult learning is work experience. This is typical of many managers but is a double edge sword. On the positive side people working in organizations within which they manage learn the culture and the "administrative ropes" of the system. On the negative side, such a learning system often reinforces both good and bad practices and is resistent to change.

Are adult education organizations or units, administratively different from other types of organizations or units? Do managers of adult education organizations need to have a different set of formal learning opportunities in comparison to school administrators or business administrators or public sector administrators?

This paper assumes that there are significant differences between managing learning settings and managing other activities. The assumption is based upon a number of observation that are crucial to the managing of the adult education enterprise. First the goals of most adult education organizations or departments are associated with empowering or expanding peoples repejtoires. This is in juxtaposition to most organizations need for control. A second is that most adult education organizations have fluid non-permanent staff. This also differs dramatically from most private and public organizations. The list goes on. Thus from this assumption the following research agenda is suggested.

Where do we go? A research agenda.

In reviewing administrative training in the management of adult education, one can only conclude that the field is at a very early stage of development. It is clear that an increasing number of adults are engaged in learning in a large numbers of organizations.

1. Need for Comparative Analysis of the characteristics of adult learning systems in relation to other organizational systems.

   In order to offer opportunities for administrative training we need to be able to describe the similarities and differences between adult education organization or units and other organizational units. This analysis requires review of such variables as context, personnel, staffing, goals, mission, clientele characteristics, transformation and production systems, coordinating mechanism and so forth. A more comprehensive set of typologies of adult education organizations could also result from such a review.

2. Need to Understand the nature of managerial work in adult education.

   During the past two decades management educators have realized how little they know about the type of activities their clientele engage in. This is probably true for the field of adult education. In general, there is little known about the day to day activities of those who manage adult education.

3. Need to Understand the learning needs of adult education administrators.

   Clearly if the field of adult education is to pay attention to those who administer the field, some concern should be given to understanding who they are and what their learning needs are. Now, learning needs are assessed at the individual level. That is each administrator reviews their own needs and develops ways and means to meet their learning needs. A more conceptual and collective analysis might help individuals with their struggle to understand their learning needs and at the same time allow the field of adult education to make a more comprehensive statement about administrative learning needs.

4. Need to Better Understand the existing learning systems used by managers of adult learning.

   How do managers learn how to manage? What strategies do managers of adult learning use to gain skills knowledge and insights into their role? Clearly, though there are no formal programs for managers of adult education, this has not stopped them from learning their craft. It certainly would help those of us in training managers if we better understood the modalities being presently utilized by managers of adult learning.

Concluding Comments

Our data indicate that managers of adult education are a forgotten managerial group. Little is known about them, their organizations and their learning needs. Most formal programs in Canada provide few structured learning opportunities which focus on typical administrative areas. As for non-formal learning opportunities, there are few central coordinating mechanisms which can provide insights into these learning opportunities. As the field of adult education grows, matures and develops, it is clear that more attention need to be paid to our "Managers of Learning".

Table 1. Results of a study on administrative courses offered in adult education programs

Course title	Number of universities offering courses
Introduction to the administration of adult education	13
Program Planning and Appraisal	7
Performance Appraisal	3
Policy Development	3
Leadership Development	2
Development Administration	2
Financing Adult Education programs	2
Marketing Adult Education programs	1

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LIFELONG EDUCATION AS SOCIAL POLICY: IDEALS AND REALITIES

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Introduction

A great potential resides in the application of lifelong education as a social policy. The basic premise of the research reported here is that the literature falls short in its examination of a number of assumptions concerning the expected social outcomes of the implementation of a lifelong education policy. This paper is derived from a larger, normative study of lifelong education policy as social policy. In that project an analytic framework was developed and then employed to analyze the expected social outcomes of lifelong education policies described in several sources: contemporary Canadian federal and provincial policies, CAAE papers, Canadian Commission for UNESCO documents, and selected publications of UNESCO. This paper offers a brief overview of some of the expected social outcomes found in the literature, and describes the analytic framework developed to examine these goals. Finally, it presents some preliminary results of this analysis.

Goals and Outcomes of Lifelong Education

A study of the literature reveals a number of explicit statements of goals and outcomes of lifelong education for both individuals and society. While the majority of these statements concern presumed benefits for individuals, the study was focussed on outcomes for society. Examples include:

- "to enable us to become more and more committed to the struggle against those who oppress mankind..."
- "the development of a society which functions with efficiency but without suppressing the 'spirit of man' to the point of alienation."
- "a new quality of life which includes the application of the principle of democratization in all aspects of society".
- "to develop in people the ability to generate and direct change".
- "to encourage and provide lifelong opportunities to continue education so that British Columbians will have a fuller life and make greater contributions to society, the economy, and the labour force".
- "breaking down the barriers between school and real life"

The Analytic Framework

The analytic framework developed for the purpose of exploring the meaning and assumptions underlying these anticipated social outcomes includes three components: the role of education in society, the model of social change, and the theory of justice. The theories supporting each of these components overlap and link in places, adding greater conceptual strength. By viewing the goal statements from a number of different perspectives, it becomes possible to achieve a fuller understanding of the assumptions. Each component is described below.

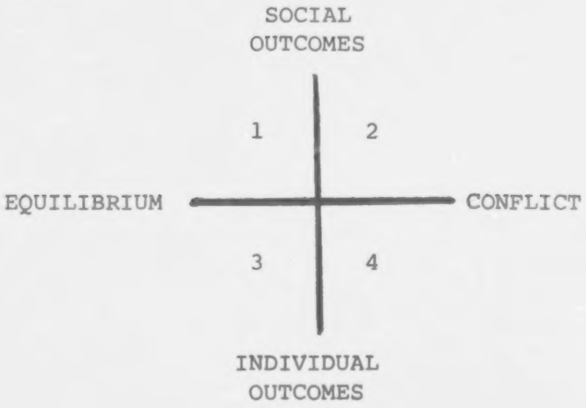
The role of education in society as addressed by writers such as Dewey, Coleman and subsequently Jencks, Apple, Aronowitz, and Giroux, provides a general backdrop for considering models of social change and theories of justice in relation to lifelong education. In the investigation into what is now characterized as the "reproduction/transformation" debate, that two vital elements of the role of education in society need to be addressed. One is the recognition of the vital significance of the larger political, economic, social, and cultural context in which eduational change takes place. The other is the debate concerning the *direction* and ideological position suggested in the change effort. The very nature of the foundational principles of lifelong education contains the potential to flesh out the transformative role of education, but as Gelpi (1979) has pointed out, lifelong education also contains the opportunity for manipulation and social control. The examination of the literature sought to discover and to highlight the extent to which issues of structure and ideology are addressed, either explicitly or implicitly.

Another component of the framework is the model of social change reflected in outcome statements. The aim of this part of the analysis was twofold. First, it sought to reveal the extent to which power and conflict are taken into account in the proposed implementation of lifelong education policies. Second, it endeavoured to determine the the preconditions for change, the rationale, the processes involved, and general statements about desired outcomes built into lifelong education policies. An adaption of Paulston's (1977) typology of the various "theories" of social change was employed.

The proposition that implementation of lifelong education policies can bring about a more just society requires the clarification of a number of concepts. For example, since there is a variety of views as to what defines a "good" in society, there must be some description of which "good" is being sought through policy. More particularly, it is important to know by what principles it is proposed the this "good" ought to be distributed in society. Further, the *basis* of these principles is dependant upon whether one believes that human good can be attained by the individual acting alone, or whether it can be achieved only in association with others. The position taken on this question has far reaching implications for the understanding of what exactly is meant by a "more just society". Some account of the various theories of justice must therefore be sought in the lifelong education literature. The works of Rawls, Taylor, and Farrell, among others, have been drawn upon in the development of this component of the analytic framework.

Initial Findings

A simple two-way figure enables the various positions in the literature to be depicted graphically:



The vertical axis (A) remains constant: a continuum from social outcomes of lifelong education through to outcomes for individual benefit. The horizontal axis (B) is used to variously represent the positions taken in the literature with respect to roles of education in society, models of social change, and theories of justice. Space does not permit a discussion of the limitations of the polarizations represented by the use of continua, but for the purposes of initial conceptual clarity, they have something to offer.

The usefulness of this depiction can be illustrated by locating on the figure selected statements from the literature relating to social change. For the consideration of this component Axis B runs from "Equilibrium" at the left pole to "Conflict" on the right. Much of the UNESCO literature, for example, with the exception of works by Ettore Gelpi, can be placed in Quadrant 3; strong existentialist, fulfilment of individual needs and potential, adaptation, and skill aquisition themes surface in a context apparently assumed to be free of conflict between competing interests. Similarly, publications of the Canadian Council of Ministers of Education that acknowledge the concept of lifelong education appear to be placed best in that same quadrant. They tend to emphasize schooling and training, and economic development but offer limited discussion about the social goals of education and fail to consider structural barriers that affect educational outcomes. In contrast, the work of Gelpi might be located in Quadrant 2. In his writings Gelpi not only suggests that lifelong education might enable people to become more committed to the struggle against forms of oppression, he also speaks directly to the forms and sources of opposition in society to the potential for human freedom, self-direction, and cultural autonomy implied in lifelong education policy.

These examples demonstrate one step in an analytic process toward greater clarity of understanding of the literature. To examine the "role of education" component, Axis B would represent a continuum with "Reproduction" on the left hand side and "Transformation" on the right. When characterizing the "theories of justice" component, the left hand pole of Axis B would represent the "defense of individual rights", while the right hand pole would represent "distributive justice based on the social nature of human life".

But alongside the examination of the explicit goals statements in the literature, a perspective that has proved to be more revealing of fundamental assumptions is the recognition of what has *not* been addressed, and what has *not* been problematized. This approach brings to light the omission of a number of essential elements in the theoretical foundations of lifelong education. For example, lacking for the most part is a discussion of the specific definition of expected outcomes such as "democratization" of society, "a society characterized by freedom and happiness", and "a more just society". Further, the imprecise and interchangeable application of terms like "lifelong education", "lifelong learning", and "adult education" muddies the definitional problem. Also missing in most of the literature is a direct questioning of the social function of education, its potential for reproduction of inequalities and for social control, resistance, and the possibility of transformation of the social order. Related to the above issues is the concern that the relationship of education to the structural context is seldom scrutinized, nor are the implications of the relationship addressed. Further, while implications of lifelong education for curriculum have been somewhat explored, this analysis appears not to have grappled with what Griffin (1983a) has called a study of curriculum "in terms of knowledge, culture, and power".

Conclusions and Implications

These weaknesses in the theoretical foundations of lifelong education policy have profound consequences. They restrict the ability to develop practical policy and to evaluate emerging social-educational policies that might be derived from ad hoc appropriation of fragments of the lifelong eduation concept. An investigation such as the one described in this paper begins to outline how this is the case.

It will be demonstrated even more clearly in the next steps of the analysis. Following Griffin (1983b), and adapting Richard Titmuss' (1974) three normative models of social policy, the final stage of this research will be to undertake a provisional comparison of the assumptions within lifelong education policy with the social theory of each of Titmuss' models: the Residual Welfare Model based on a liberal ideology of individualism and laissez-faire economics; the Industrial Achievement-Performance Model which treats social welfare (and educational?) institutions as adjuncts of the economy; and the Institutional Redistributive Model which "stands for the pursuit of social equality through command over resources" (p. 234). It is expected that this comparison will bring to light substantive ideological issues that must be decided in the application of lifelong education policy as social policy.

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DELIVERING A BACCALAUREATE PROGRAM FOR REGISTERED NURSES BY DISTANCE EDUCATION

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The University of Ottawa, through the Service for Continuing Education, has a long tradition of making credit courses available off campus. This service meets the needs of people who have the ability and who want to increase their knowledge and develop their skills, but whose professional or personal commitments prevent them from coming to campus to take courses on a regular basis. In recent years the University of Ottawa has been making use of telephone lines to offer courses to the off campus groups. Making use of the telephone to deliver courses to remote communities became possible with the transformation of the familiar telephone handset. Invented as a device enabling one individual to interact with another, the handset has become a loudspeaker and a set of microphones, making it possible for groups of individuals to interact with other groups of individuals.

When a course is given by telephone, it is taught to a group of students who have come together in a classroom in an off-campus community. The classroom is equipped with a loudspeaker and a set of microphones, one microphone for every three students. The originating classroom with its professor and a group of students, which may be on campus or in another off-campus community, is also equipped with a loudspeaker and a set of microphones. The professor wears a cordless microphone that allows for freedom of movement. Just before class begins, one centre calls the other, the loudspeakers and microphones are switched on, and class begins. Like any telephone conversation, everything that is said in one room is heard by everyone in the other room and vice versa. Students in either centre interact with one another and with the professor simply by depressing a switch on the microphone. To complete the teaching/learning environmnent an electronic brackboard allows the professor to write on the board in the usual manor and everything written on the board is transmitted to all the remote sites instantly.

A wide variety of courses can be taught successfully over the network. It is impossible to transmit live pictures, but slides, films, overheads, and videotapes can be forwarded to the various centres prior to the class. During class a student in each centre accepts responsibility for showing the film or changing slides or overheads. At the request of the professor all books, printed handouts, videotapes, films, overheads, slides, etc. are made available to the students in the remote classrooms. Examinations and assignments are also handled in the same manner as those on campus.

THE IDEAS BEHIND THE NETWORK

Networks are not designed in a vacuum. Existing institutional structures and traditions, along with economic and social practices, combined with the sophistication of the technology available, play a determining role in the design of any new network. However, within these limiting factors, the Service for Continuing Education, which is responsible for the coordination of the network, attempts to follow a number of fundamental guidelines.

Interactive in Real Time

That the system be interactive in real time is the one principle that has dominated the development of the network. Students in the various centres are able to interact verbally with the professor or other students in any other centre at any time during the course. Interactivity in real time gives the students the opportunity to participate actively in the teachin/learning process. Questions can be raised and comments can be made at that point in the presentation which is most beneficial to the student. Because the network is interactive-in-real-time, professors are free to use the same various teaching styles and techniques as they do in the traditional classroom. Straight lectures, question and answer periods, group discussions, student presentations, problem solving, etc. are all styles that are as easy to handle on the network with several centres as they are in the classroom on campus. The interactive network lets students hear one another's questions and comments. This is an important asset in helping students evaluate their own learning and understanding of the material. Other students' questions and comments can draw classmates' attention to difficulties, weaknesses or important points in the material under investigation, which may have otherwise been overlooked.

Teaching by Telephone From a Live Classroom

Most courses on the network are taught from a live classroom rather than from a studio or office where the professor would be alone. The classroom provides a natural teaching/learning environment with a creative tension that has a positive effect on most professors. Because there is no visual feedback coming from the remote locations, professors can rely on the visual feedback coming from the students in front of them to determine the mental state of the students in the remote classrooms. Teaching from a live classroom means that the professor will not lose valuable research time teaching the same course a second time for the off-campus communities. It also means that students in isolated communities have access to the same specialists as do the students on campus which makes it possible to offer a complete programme of courses.

Adapting the Equipment to the Teaching/Learning Environment

The selection of equipment for the classrooms is guided by the desire to disrupt the natural teaching/learning environment of the classroom as little as possible, while ensuring that the remote locations can participate as freely as possible. It also means respecting the professors by finding equipment that they are at ease using rather than selecting the equipment and asking the professors to change their way of teaching in order to use the new equipment.

Keeping it Portable, Flexible and Simple

Portability, flexibility and simplicity of operation, are other principles that have guided the creation of the network. In the off-campus centres the University uses classroom space in community colleges, high schools and hospitals. Because these classrooms are not dedicated to the network full time, equipment cannot be installed on a permanent basis. In most centres, because of the number of students, it would not be economically feasible to have a technician on site to set up the equipment prior to the lecture and dismantle it afterwards. Therefore, the equipment must be so simple that it can be easily stored when not in use and easily installed in the classroom when required.

Bringing Students Together in Small Groups

A final positive dimension of a telephone-based distance-education network is that it brings students together in small groups, in classrooms in remote communities. Besides the social function the evening together serves in the community, the group dynamics play a major role in the learning process and is also a strong source of motivation and encouragement for the individual student. Student replies on questionnaires over the past six years clearly indicate that students see their success as partly a function of their relationships with their classmates in the centre. Not having the professor physically present in the classroom, they tend to turn to one another for help before turning to the microphone. Because all their microphones are normally in the off position, they can dexchange comments, seek clarifications from one another or question a point without disturbing the professor or the other centres on-line. In many ways, therefore, the network is serving to develop more independent students.

The Curriculum

The 1982 recommendation by the Canadian Nurses Association of the baccalaureate as entry level for professional nursing practice by the year 2000 has sent nurses back to school in unprecedented numbers. Anticipating the demand on our Post RN program, we surveyed RNs in the university's catchment area to obtain data for planning (DuGas, 1985). We realized that we would have to expand our program considerably when more than one third of the nurses in the area said they wanted to pursue baccalaureate studies (approximately 1700). Our potential clientele were mainly employed nurses who needed evening courses in their home communities to pursue their educational goals. They wanted courses that would enhance their professional qualifications. Courses in advanced clinical nursing, in management, and in teaching were requested.

We decided it was time to reexamine our Post RN program with a view to making it more relevant to their needs. We looked at the three elements of curriculum design - the student, the subject matter and the setting-in terms of delivering professional education of a high standard to a large number of students living in different communities in Eastern Ontario.

The survey gave us a profile of our prospective students. They were, for the most part, women, in the 30-45 year old range, married, with dependent children and employed on a full or part time basis. They are, then, mature adults who come into the program with professional status as registered nurses. They have a background of basic nursing knowledge and skills, with varying years of practice in the field - as staff nurse, head nurse, or supervisor. Some are teachers in diploma schools of nursing, who hold a certificate in teaching. Almost invariably, the nurses are fulfilling several roles at once - as homemaker, mother, employee (sometimes "breadwinner"), as well as student.

Their basic professional training may have been anywhere from two to twenty years ago. Most do not possess the formal entrance requirements for university and come into the program under the university's mature student policy.

What did they need then, to complete requirements for a Bachelor of Science in Nursing degree? We felt they needed some introductory social science and humanities courses that provide a foundation for all university professional programs. We, therefore, included courses in English, French, Introductory Psychology and Sociology or Philosophy.

Then, there was a core of basic nursing and biomedical science content that needed strengthening. Knowledge in both nursing and biomedical sciences has increased exponentially in the past few decades so there was a need to bring students up-to-date with current theories and the latest information in the field. We incorporated a "core" of required courses, then, to provide a solid foundation of basic nursing and biomedical sciences.

To meet the expressed needs of the nurses for advanced level content, we developed concentration options in the fields of perinatal nursing, geriatric/gerontological nursing, psychiatric/mental health nursing and community/occupational health nursing. Advanced clinical nursing courses were designed in each of the concentration areas to build on the RN's previous knowledge and experience. Relevant senior level biomedical and social science courses were added to support the nursing science courses. These are offered as electives and students may select, from offerings within the Health Sciences, or from other faculties, those courses which best suit their needs and interests.

We were satisfied with the subject matter content of the curriculum, then, but still had to consider the setting. The telephone distance education network being developed by the university's Service for Continuing Education provided us with the means to take the program to nurses who, because of work and family commitments, and because of distance from the university, would not otherwise have been able to continue their studies. The question was, how best to deliver the program, keeping in mind the exigencies of offering it by teleconference?

As Dr. McDonell has pointed out, our aim is to maintain a classroom atmosphere that is as close to the traditional class as possible. The courses we offer on the teleducation network are being taken at the same time by students on campus. In order to make the courses more accessible to students at a distance, we broke some of the heavy credit-laden ones into smaller, more manageable courses of 3 or 6 credits; most can be taken in one semester. We found that designing a course for teleducation takes more advance planning than for traditional university courses. Library resources are limited in many centres, so students need ample advance warning to complete preparatory reading. Audiovisual aids and other supplementary course materials must be forwarded to centres in time for class. Courses tend to be a little more structured than the usual campus course. We have a 3 hour class period, which has encouraged professors to try a variety of strategies to encourage class particpation.

We have now had five years of experience with telephone distance education, having started in the 1983-84 academic year with three courses to four outside centres. The program has undergone a gradual process of expansion as we added more centres to the network and offered more courses. In 1987-88, we offered 12 courses to a total of 13 outside centres and now have over 600 students taking courses by teleducation towards their B.Sc.N.

So far, the program has been quite successful. A study, undertaken in 1985 indicated that students enrolled in teleconference courses in the remote centres achieve grades as high as, or higher than their counterparts taught in a traditional classroom setting (Styran, 1984). These findings have since been corroborated by other teachers in the program. Attrition rates from the teleconference courses are lower than those associated with distance education by other modes. The students, after an initial period of resistance to the technology have shown considerable enthusiasm for the program. The particular aspects which they have found most helpful in learning are the interactive nature of classes and the support of their classmates in the remote centres - which undoubtedly has a great deal to do with keeping the students coming back to class week after week through the long, cold, Ottawa Valley Winter.

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Clinical Courses

The philosophy of "life-long learning" in any profession has always been difficult to animate with consistent quality, and the nursing profession, with its unique historical evolution is a particular case in point. Given that baccalaureate education will become the requirement for entry into professional practice by the year 2,000, and given that nurses are no longer asking "why?" but "how?", the University of Ottawa School of Nursing has undertaken to make the post-RN baccalaureate program accessible to nurses in the University's catchment area and even somewhat beyond.

It is one thing to offer traditional courses such as those offered in the Arts and Social Sciences via the teleconference medium. It is quite another to offer courses in a professional program which require the organization of clinical practice in the distant education centres. This organization requires long-term planning in the selection of clinical preceptors who are qualified to assist the students in achieving the objectives of the courses. It also requires provisions for assuring the quality of the clinical experience in centres that may not have large and varied health care facilities. This is where collaborative ventures with the Community Colleges reveal their significance and utility. Courses in the bio-medical and nursing sciences have to date been sent to our various distance education centres through the collaboration of the Community Colleges who provided classrooms and liaison personnel to assist students with all of those minutiae that surround the taking of any course. With the offering of the advanced clinical nursing courses that collaboration becomes crucial.

Currently we are offering three courses requiring clinical experience:

1. Nursing Management of the at Risk Gravida During Intra-Partum (one of the courses in Peri-natal nursing).

2. Psychosocial Nursing (a course focusing on communication and helping strategies that transcend traditional course boundaries).

3. Promoting Healthy Aging Through Nursing Practice (a course focusing on health promotion for the elderly client in a community setting).

In the Peri-natal courses, extension to off-campus centres is limited to Kingston and London, where tertiary care facilites particularly for neonates exist. Collaboration here is carried out through Nursing faculty at Queens and Western.

In the Psychosocial Nursing course, transmission for this year is limited to Brockville, Ontario, where two group facilitators conduct communication labs and assist students with clinical assignments. The professor in charge of the course lectures via teleconference for the first hour. The facilitators conduct the group discussions and labs on site.

The course entitled Promoting Healthy Aging Through Nursing is perhaps the first clinical course to be teleconferenced to multiple centres as are our non-clinical nursing and bio-medical courses. Four outside centres receive the course in addition to the on-site classroom. In each centre a facilitator sees each student individually and monitors the quality of the community assignment for adherence to objectives of the assignment.

Currently negotiations are underway with Public Health Units, Home Care Agencies and Clinical Facilites to accept students enrolled in the Post-RN Baccalaureate Program.

The issues that such a system raises are five: Firstly, of course, the need to maintain excellence of teaching and clinical experience given the problem of remoteness of the clinical sites. Secondly, the question of legal protection for the clinical sites. Thirdly, the cost to the University in hiring clinical advisors, fourthly, the perception on the part of the host agencies of the need for the School of Nursing do something in return for the provision of clinical facilities and fifthly, the need to build in an evaluative mechanism through systematic research of student performance and satisfaction levels of all concerned.

The position of Coordinator of Continuing Education carries the responsibility of coordinating the nursing and bio-medical science courses that are offered through distance education. The coordinator maintains constant contact with liaison personnel in the distance education centres, initiates negotiations with Community College and Clinical Facilities for clinical advisors and preceptors and helps solve the problems that arise both in the centres and at the site of transmission. Of crucial importance will be future liaison with other University Schools of Nursing offering distance education and with schools who will be challenged to accept transfer of credit to honor the principles of accessibility, flexibility, accountability and relevancy. The University of Ottawa, School of Nursing has been handed a futurist oriented challenge. It is up to us to make it a present reality.

FUTURES RESEARCH--AN ALTERNATIVE MODEL FOR CONDUCTING CONTINUING EDUCATION NEEDS ASSESSMENTS

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Deshler (1987) wrote that there is an increasing recognition on the part of continuing educators that responding to change, as it rapidly occurs in our society, is not enough. Deshler stated that what is called for is an anticipatory or proactive stance toward the future, a stance that goes beyond reacting to needs as they occur.

This paper attempts to describe some methods for assisting professionals to think about the future. Once alternative futures are seen as a possibility then it is possible to discuss the continuing education needs for alternate futures. Future thinking creates an environment for proactive continuing education activities which can help professionals confront and address future issues rather than passively reacting after the fact. During the presentation of this paper there will be opportunities for discussing and demonstrating some of the methods for generating futures perspectives as will as some examination of how these methods are useful in continuing education needs assessment. The results of some recent studies on the future will also be presented.

Rationale for Future Studies

Palkert (1986) addressed an important issue of future studies when she commented that the way people think about the future, and what they are willing and able to do to alter and prepare for the emerging future, can affect actualities. Polak (1973) stated that images of the future not only indicate alternative choices and possibilities but actively promote certain choices and in effect put them to work determining the future.

Dubin (1972) stated that the factor figuring most prominently in hastening professional obsolescence is the rate of change and the addition of new data and knowledge. Education must therefore be defined now as a lifelong process of continuing inquiry.

Houle (1967) has written extensively about continuing education of professionals. He wrote that professionals do pursue further learning in response to certain felt needs. Two of these needs are the following: (1) the need to keep up with new knowledge related to the profession and (2) the need to establish mastery of the new conceptions of one's profession.

Generating Futures Perspectives

Deshler (1987) reviewed the literature on futures research and categorized the methods for generating futures perspectives into the following four types of techniques:

(1) Anticipatory Learning techniques--these techniques are aimed at overcoming resistance to viewing the future and awaken persons to the necessity of learning to think about the future. These techniques include self-directed learning from futures literature, futures-oriented self-assessment such as Patton's (1986) future quotient quiz (which we will do during this presentation); discussion and reflection of fictitional futures; and games and simulation techniques.

(2) Projection and Forecasting techniques--these include methods such as the Delphi method, trend extrapolation, cross impact analysis, and use of computers to forecast.

(3) Prevention and adaptation techniques--these techniques serve to prevent potentially undesirable consequences of past events or present decisions. These include assessment activities of various types such as economic impact assessments, technology impact assessments, environmental impact assessments and social impact assessments.

(4) Invention and creation techniques--the focus of these techniques is to challenge existing mental barriers and make use of creative intuition and to construct visions or plans for a desirable or preferred future. These methods include imaging, scenario creation, futures history writing, and action planning.

To Tough (1987) nothing could be more important than having adult educators and their institutions think creatively about the parts they can play in achieving a positive future for humanity. Tough saw tremendous potential in curriculum planning for providing opportunities for people to learn about prospects for the future. Deshler's categorization helps us realize that there are many methods for examining the future and there will be many scenarios envisioned through these methods.

Using Futures Methods as a Method of Needs Assessment

Many methods of assessing the learning needs of professionals are described in the literature, however, there are few methods which are attentive to future needs and future directions of the field. Some methods may be more helpful than others in obtaining the continuing education needs of professionals which must be addressed in order for the professionals to be competent in the future. In the next sections descriptions are presented of two methods for generating futures alternatives and for obtaining perceptions about future continuing education needs.

The STEEP technique. In a STEEP exercise the social, technological, environmental, economic and political impacts, trends and anticipated changes in a profession, community or group over the next five, ten or fifteen years are discussed by participants. The purpose of the exercise is to stimulate thought about the impact of change on the future of a community, profession or organization. Completion of the STEEP exercise then enables a group to move on to discussion of methods for coping with change and in turn for planning for drastically altered futures. These processes eventually lead to discussion of necessary continuing education activities for confronting the future in a proactive way.

Kvistberg, Milk and Olzewski utilized the STEEP method in a 1987 MACAE meeting as a means of providing active audience involvement in futures thinking. The advantage of this exercise is that it can be done in a very short time as a way of stimulating futures thinking. It can also be used in longer sessions where the principles of the nominal group technique are utilized. In the MACAE meeting adult educators responded to the question of what will be STEEP changes in adult education in the next ten years. Some of their responses included the following:

- Social--our role (as adult educators) will be to prepare people for change;
- Technological--4 out of 5 jobs will need technical skill beyond high school, people may no longer work in big offices, instant communications will change services;
- Environmental--we will be preparing to move beyond earth, we will be aware of the finiteness of our resources;
- Economic--there will be lower standards of living, women will be in the work force permanently, fewer dollars for education;
- Political--there *weill be increased need for political activity on the part of adult educators and increased pressure for adult educators to provide services.

Ethnographic futures research. Textor (1980) referred to Ethnographic futures research as EFR. Textor used the EFR interview to elicit scenarios of possible futures from interviewees. He preferred having people project twenty or thirty years into the future because he felt that it freed them from the limitations or constraints of the present, yet was not so far into the future that they couldn't take the interview seriously.

Results of Ethnographic Interviews on the Future of a Profession

At a national meeting of public health leaders, twenty-three professionals with past or present leadership positions in a national public health related professional association were interviewed using a modified Ethnographic futures interview. The interview was modified to allow for a shorter time span than is normally utilized in interviews of this kind. The major focus of discussion was the nature of public health in the year 2010, with particular emphasis on health education. Respondents were asked to describe their most pessimistic, most optimistic, and most probable future for the year 2010. Probes relating to the nature of continuing education in each of these scenarios were also asked.

The following question was asked in regards to continuing education and the role of professional associations. "What do you think will be the role of national professional association's in continuing education of the public health professional in the most probable future of 2010? A list of some responses follows:

* The professional association will have a major role in providing and monitoring continuing education.
* The profession will have visionaries to set directions that the practice field hasn't tried.
* The profession will provide peer recognition, encouragement and approval.
* The profesion will be a source of new information as well as a means of networking about new jobs.
* The profession will attempt a closer marriage between providers of training and the professional associations.
* Professional associations will provide incentives for those who participate in continuing education.
* The professional association will educate the public about the profession.
* The professional association will provide a forum for interaction between the disciplines.
* The professional association will make known the standards and set up a credentialing process.
* The association will provide professionals the opportunity to grow and develop and to know other people.
* The profession wil guard against (1) the collective zeal of those that want to promote something that the profession needs, and (2) protect social systems from instituting the worst case scenario.
* The association will give people an arena in which to expose their ideas--this is particularly important for those who have had individualized training at home thrugh interactive computers.
* The professional association will be a trend watcher, it will identify the trends and bring these to the attention of educational providers.

In response to the question of how continuing education needs of professionals will be determined in the most probable future of 2010, the following are some of the responses made:

In 2010 the continuing education needs of public health professionals will be determined by:

* conducting continuous needs assessments;
* visionaries and professionals;
* activities such as this study;
* upper level management;
* the current emphasis of funding bodies;
* asking people what they need;
* looking at the statistics about the people they serve and conducting training related to client needs;
* electronic mechanisms;
* studying trends and patterns of health;
* professional associations doing systematic needs assessments by categories, the categories will relate to points of career--new career, mid career, and veterans;
* a means which also includes the needs of the lonely and isolated professionals;

Summary and Recommendations

Tough (1987) stated that humanity's future will benefit from adult educators who have a strong commitment to making a positive difference as the unfolding human drama moves through its next exciting scenes. As educators of adults increase their thoughtful understanding of potential futures, Tough felt, their new wisdom would lead to an enhanced impact for their programs.

Many opportunities are now available for helping us create visions of a positive future. Futures research assists in training persons to manage change in ways that lead to cooperation instead of resistance. Through the use of methods that demonstrate alternative futures barriers to present problems are lifted and new options and directions are considered for continuing education.

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THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF RECURRENT EDUCATION

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Introduction

At a time in Canada's history when recurrent education may be seriously considered by policy makers as a "remedy" to the apparent decline in human capital that now regularly occurs as a result of technological displacement, it is appropriate to examine recurrent education from a theoretical point of view. The need is justified from two perspectives: first, most of the research on education and the labour market looks at how education affect people's chances in the labour market. The focus is on individual careers, not on social structures. It focuses on how education affects the workplace, not on how the workplace affects education (see Gaskell, 1987:256). Second, adult educators appear to have been unduly influenced by human capital theory as enunciated, for example, in the Economic Council of Canada (1964) report on Education and Economic Growth. It predicts that a more educated worker will be more productive at work, and it tests this idea by examining the differences in income earned by more and less educated workers, assuming that productivity is rewarded by employers in the form of higher wages. The recent document, Recurrent Education in an Information Economy (Morrison and Rubenson, 1987) put out by the CAAE promotes the need for more training and re-training opportunities for adult Canadians. The views expressed reflect an acceptance of assumptions inherent in human capital theory, drawing a happy parallel between the interests of society as a whole and more investment in education/training.

And yet, ironically, in 1982, another publication put out by CAAE (From the Adult's Point of View, 1982) warned that adult education was unevenly distributed throughout Canada thus contributing to regional and class disparities. The need to clarify basic ideological and theoretical assumptions undergirding recurrent education is a prerequisite to the acceptance and application of recurrent education policies.

To this end, the paper discusses certain theoretical interpretations of plausible relationships between recurrent education and social change. The recurrent education and training thesis will be discussed in the context of modernization, human capital theory, and radical critiques.

These three paradigins dominate discussion and debate in the literature.

Briefly put, modernization theory provides a means for discussing recurrent education from a functionalist or pluralist sociological standpoint. The neo-classical theory of human capital constitutes the framework for an economic analysis of recurrent education. Conflict, or Marxist-oriented interpretations of the political economy of education and the workplace provide the context for an essentially ideologically committed and radical-critical view of the recurrent education thesis. Strengths, weaknesses, and areas of overlap and consensus are discussed below. The paper concludes by recommending the need for a multi-disciplinary approach in the way adult educators conceptualize recurrent education.

Modernization Theory and Recurrent Education

Modernization implies that a key determinant of social structure is constituted neither by ideology, nor class conflicts, nor culture, but by technology (Mishra, 1977:34). Knowledge production and technological innovation affect the differentiation of complex social organizations - in particular, of education and work. The generation of capital in the pursuit of economic growth leads to reinvestment, not only in primary sectors of the economy, but in institutions assumed to influence the formation of "modern values". The existence of a linear modernization sequence, has, however, been challenged by those who claim that human dispositions occasioned by participation in modern society constitutes a precondition rather than an outcome of modernization at higher levels of organization. Education plays a crucial role in any continuous modernization dynamic. Education, including adult/continuing education, as an integrative and socializing influence functions to maintain stability and social harmony (Paulston, 1976:7). However, apart from merely responding to changing needs or emergent problems of transition, education also functions as an active agent of change. Recurrent education represents a functional and intermediate outcome, a motor behind, some particular process. The workplace and the educational system play a crucial role in creating social psychological modernity attributes of the type described by Inkeles and Smith (1974: 19.24) and Myrdal (1968: 61-62). From a perspective of growth sequential social change, educational policies must bear witness to the particular phase of economic development being experienced. In relating modernization to recurrent education policy, connections between structural and technological change and the wider dimensions of society at large need to be explored. It would be fruitful to approach the education - modernization dynamic by tracing the origins of these reciprocal relationships, and to attempt to identify some of the long-term developmental needs and problems which may facilitate the design of recurrent educational systems.

According to Fagerlind and Saha (1983: 141) "modernization strategy" for educational reform is based on the expansion of the "modern sectors" of the system, including a high participation rate and standard curricula. Rationales for recurrent education correspond to emergent needs of a future post-modern society in high-tech terms.

The validity of modernization doctrines have been subjected to serve criticism on theoretical and empirical grounds. As Carnoy states (1984: 34) individuals are implicitly placed on a continuum of socio-psychological development from "traditional" to modern and in sharp contrast with "modern capitalistic individuals", the norms and values of traditional values are viewed as nonrational.

Human Capital Theory and Recurrent Education

Human capital theory postulates that the most efficient path to the national development of any society lies in the improvement of its population, that is, its human capital (Fagerlind and Saha, 1983: 8). Human capital refers to investment in education. Basic to the notion is that somehow earnings reflect increases in productivity between people with different amounts of schooling. It is claimed that there exists a link between, at the micro level, education, productivity and earnings; and at the macro level between the amount of education possessed by the labor force and GNP growth. Thus, all productivity-relevant differences between individuals are an expression of the amount of human capital accrued by means of an investment in recurrent education and training. (Schultz, 1968; Becker, 1968; Mincer, 1974; Stoikov, 1975; Bowman, 1978.)

The notion of rational human behavior constitutes perhaps the strongest dedominator of human capital theory. When applied to education, the rationality thesis translates into efficiency concerns. Cost-benefit analysis becomes the means to judge the value of education in socio-economic terms. Human capital theory raises arguments both in favor of as well as against recurrent education. Arguments in favor are that (1) the amount of acquired education correlates with lifetime learnings. An individual, therefore, would benefit from acquiring an additional amount of education and training later during his/her working life; (2) the notion of depreciation of human capital through nonuse or by the decreasing value and usefulness of previously acquired skills could mean that one could benefit from participation in recurrent education especially during mid-carer; (3) obsolescence of human capital with preceeding age implies a risk for layoff or for career discontinuation; (4) recurrent education could positively affect a situation of impending unemployment or underemployment. Finally, the literature indicates that the first job constitutes an important determinant of future occupation and incomes. (Stoikov, 1975).

Arguments pro and con recurrent education as offered by a human capital perspective may point to the overall limitedness of this neo-classical approach. A more radical and critical interpretation of the political economy of recurrent education is presented below.

Recurrent Education and Radical Critiques

Especially during the late 1960's and early 1970's, educational theory faced a relatively new influx of largely politically committed ideas stemming from all domains of the social sciences. The general claim was that education is political because it strongly reflects various wide-ranging and often conflicting preferences of society (Kogan, 1975). The "political economy of education" has to do with at least four major issues: (1) the role of education/training in allocating social privileges, (2) the normative roles of education in transmitting social beliefs and values; (3) the relationship between education and social change; and (4) educational claims on the allocation of public resources (Wieler, 1985: 382-96).

Education forms a integral part of these issues. Thus, it has a potential for becoming a source of contradiction. Discontent with the roles of education led radicals to "examine education not as reflecting the needs of society but rather as expressing dominance of one social group over another" (Banks, 1976: 115). A Weberian tradition sees education in the context of competing status groups struggling for wealth and power to manipulate strategic resources. Marxist approaches stress the importance of class struggles and reproduction of norms and social relations (Karabel and Halsey, 1977: 35). Their critical examination of roles of recurrent education in society centres on interaction dynamics between work and education. According to radicals, recurrent education may have the potential for allocating social statuses, and thus, for reproducing the existing social order. Sociological evidence suggests that acquired levels of education determines socio-economic success. Recurrent education, then, may not significantly differ from those of front-end schooling with regard to reproduction.

Critics are also concerned with the distribution of political and cultural resources in society. Gains of a political nature could, for instance, come with the legitimation of capitalist ideology. Cultural benefits, although difficult to delineate, could accrue to social groups. Hegemony, so the argument goes, may be reinforced by applying methods of rewarding, in terms of career prospects and pay increases, those qualities and personality attributes considered crucial to the maintenance of capitalist relations of production.

Conclusion

Perhaps the most obvious observation which emerges from the above is that there exists various alternatives interpretations as to the usefulness, relevance, and meaning of recurrent education. It is not the aim of the paper to underwrite any one of these in isolation to the others. The perspectives discussed each have their strengths and weaknesses.

Consensus and conflict theories are most commonly presented as competing ideologies or, alternatively, as juxtaposed bipolar extremes in a continuum perspective. Thrusts of contemporary arguments appear to favor the integration of these extremes into a dialectical model. The effort to conceptualize recurrent education may, perhaps, be facilitated by adopting a multidisciplinary and dialectical approach.

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COMPOSANTES DE L'INTERACTION ENTRE LE VISITEUR ET L'OBJET DE MUSEE

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Depuis ces dernières années, des intervenants de diverses disciplines se sont intéressés au domaine muséal, et ce, dans le but de mieux servir le visiteur de musée et de faire de cette institution un lieu dynamique qui évolue et qui s'ajuste aux besoins du XXe siècle(Thier,1984; Belcher, 1983). Du même coup, on a tenté de dépoussiérer l'image traditionnelle du musée.

Peu importe les moyens, les musées s'efforcent de rejoindre leurs clientèles soit par l'esthétisme, l'aspect cognitif ou l'aspect ludique et participatif. Ils s'efforcent d'éveiller les différents modes de perception du visiteur. "Il faut viser à ce que le visiteur réagisse de façon sensible, affective et intellectuelle, en partant de ses propres sensibilités et des particularités de son vécu actuel. Il devra pouvoir s'identifier et se comparer. Par son contenu, l'exposition doit interpeller vigoureusement le visiteur. Elle doit l'inciter, sinon le forcer, à comparer et à échanger. Surtout elle doit le séduire pour susciter chez lui l'envie d'en savoir plus". Ainsi s'exprimait tout récemment J.Mathieu en pensant à l'exposition inaugurale du Musée de la Civilisation de Québec (1987). Malgré ces intentions plus que louables, les muséologues, surtout ceux qui oeuvrent dans les musées scientifiques, continuent à structurer les exhibits qu'ils produisent par rapport au seul fonctionnement rationnel. Et du fonctionnement rationnel, ils ne retiennent habituellement que l'apprentissage. Ils batissent des exhibits en fonction de ce qu'ils veulent que le visiteur apprenne et ne mesurent que cet apprentissage(Shettel, 1968; Screven, 1975).

On méprise aussi d'autres intuitions que l'on a eu sur le fonctionnement du visiteur de musée. Par exemple, on croit que le visiteur reste maître de sa démarche, qu'il personnalise souvent la relation qu'il crée avec son environnement. On croit également que le visiteur transporte au musée, la motivation qui lui est propre, ses intentions, son imagination, ses expériences personnelles, son goût de découvrir(Shuh, 1982) ou simplement de se laisser distraire (Marcousé, 1967; Thier et Linn, 1976; Tressel, 1980). Ainsi, le visiteur déjoue souvent les objectifs que le musée s'était fixé pour lui.

"La "connaissance" n'est pas dans l'objet en soi: elle est dans le mouvement du sujet, de l'esprit, qui va de l'objet et retourne à l'objet" dit Marx cité par Arnheim, 1983.
Par ailleurs, certains travaux de Bachelard (1943,1970), de Koestler (1964), de Bateson (1984), de Charon (1985), et de Denis (1979) nous montrent l'importance du fonctionnement imaginaire dans des situations assimilables à celles que connaissent les visiteurs de musée.
De plus, Arnheim (1973) montre l'importance de l'expérience esthétique et Neisser (1976) et Day (1971) celle de la perception et du fonctionnement intellectuel qui supportent le traitement de l'information dans des domaines connexes.

Ainsi, le fonctionnement du visiteur aurait au moins des composantes imaginaires, perceptuelles et rationnelles
Mais est-ce tout?

La recherche que nous avons menée avait pour but de vérifier la présence de ces composantes dans le fonctionnement psychologique du visiteur de musée et de vérifier s'il en existe d'autres.

Cette recherche a démarré par l'élaboration d'un modèle (Dufresne-Tassé, Lefebvre, 1985) fondé sur une revue systématique des écrits et sur l'observation de visiteurs en action. Ce modèle se lit ainsi:

1) Le visiteur sélectionne un objet, il l'observe et recueille un certain nombre d'informations;
2) Au contact de l'objet, il se remémore des expériences personnelles liées de près ou de loin à l'objet observé; dans une sorte de rêverie plus ou moins longue, le visiteur scrute ses souvenirs, son passé;
3) Il se pose des questions;
4) Il considère la possibilité d'accroître ses connaissances sur l'objet, d'élargir son niveau d'informations et de les rattacher à ce qu'il possède déjà.

Mais très rapidement, des questions sont apparues:
Y-a-t-il vraiment une chronologie dans les étapes proposées par le modèle? Si oui, le fonctionnement du visiteur comporte-il effectivement les étapes pré-citées?
Certaines étapes sont-elles plus importantes que d'autres?

Ces questions tout comme le modèle supposaient des connaissances que nous n'avions pas et il nous fallait nous limiter à une interrogation beaucoup plus fondamentale:
quelles sont les composantes de l'interaction entre le visiteur et l'objet muséal? ou si l'on préfère
quels sont les moyens que privilégie le visiteur pour entrer en contact avec l'objet?

DESCRIPTION DE LA RECHERCHE

L'étude du fonctionnement psychologique du visiteur
présentait certaines difficultés.

1) Nous devions obtenir le comportement spontané du visiteur.
2) Nous devions obtenir de lui des informations qui nous permettent de comprendre son comportement, car les gestes d'un visiteur qu'un chercheur peut observer renseignent mal sur son expérience intime, sur son fonctionnement intellectuel et émotif.
3) Nous devions trouver des moyens pour que ce fonctionnement s'exprime et pour en avoir un compte-rendu par le visiteur. Ces moyens ne pouvaient se résumer à un simple questionnaire parce que le fonctionnement intellectuel et émotif du visiteur est habituellement fait d'automatismes qui échappent aussi à la conscience du visiteur. Nous avons utilisé plusieurs moyens pour déjouer ces automatismes et pour obtenir un matériel significatif de la part des visiteurs. Nous avons d'abord enregistré les verbalisations de ceux-ci alors qu'ils visitaient une exposition. Nous avons ensuite utilisé avec eux un instrument projectif, puis nous avons conduit une entrevue ouverte mais qui se terminait sur des questions précises.

Les témoignages de quarante-cinq visiteurs ont été ainsi traités et nous ont fourni les données que nous allons maintenant présenter.

PRESENTATION ET INTERPRETATION DES RESULTATS.

Un certain nombre d'observations tirées d'un premier examen global des données nous permettent de dégager trois types de fonctionnement qui composent l'interaction entre le visiteur et l'objet de musée.

1) un fonctionnement imaginaire
2) un fonctionnement rationnel
3) un fonctionnement perceptif-évaluatif.

Ces trois fonctionnements, supportés par l'émotion s'entrechoquent un peu à la manière de boules de billard qui s'animent les unes les autres.

Ces fonctionnements se manifestent sous différentes formes.

Les souvenirs, les images familières, les désirs, les analogies constituent le fonctionnement imaginaire.

Les connaissances antérieures,les réflexions, la formulation de questions ou d'hypothèses, les activités d'identification, de classification et de vérification contribuent au fonctionnement rationnel.
Quant au fonctionnement perceptif-évaluatif, il se compose d'observations, du jugement posé sur les objets ou sur leur présentation.

Pour rendre compte de l'interaction et de l'enchaînement de ces fonctionnements, nous avons développé un schéma. Ce schéma, tel un électrocardiogramme, permet de visualiser le fonctionnement du visiteur , son expérience dans toute sa diversité. Il permet également d'en connaître l'évolution et de dégager des dominantes dans le fonctionnement du visiteur.

Enfin, si l'on considère qu'une visite au musée suppose une interaction entre un visiteur et des objets, on peut dire que les résultats de cette recherche décrivent le rapprochement qui se produit entre un visiteur et les objets qui ont réussi à attirer son attention.

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THE DISCOURSE OF DROPOUT IN DISTANCE EDUCATION: A THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

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A. Overview of the Problem

Many researchers have worked hard to understand, predict and control dropout from distance education. Their studies display various points of view and quite a few build on one another at a conceptual level, but their findings are rarely generalizable outside the situations in which the research is conducted. This is frustrating. It also has implications beyond the complaint that conflicting operational definitions of dropout make it impossible to draw comparisons between institutions.

Persistently high rates of what the British sometimes call "wastage" worry administrators, course designers, and tutors who are separated from the students they seek to serve. In pressured growth situations where course and program evaluation is often haphazard and delayed, or completely ignored, dropout rates are read as an indication of student approval or disapproval. Practitioners ask for more research to help them make decisions. Thoughtful academics say that new work on dropout should be based on theory appropriate to distance education. While not yet "theory," a handful of conceptual models from this field of study merit testing. Using one or more of them in further dropout research would make sense, except for two things. First, dropout resembles automobile accidents or headache in that it is a single symptom with many possible causes. Second, because of this, deductive analysis based on almost any reasonable model is likely to explain some portion of the dropout without necessarily adding to our knowledge of the whole. An inductive approach to dropout (such as the use of grounded theory) would require researchers--ideally, many more than are now available--to gather and interpret the local detail from which knowledge was to be generated. This approach might produce practical information about dropouts even if it did not clarify theoretical issues in distance education. In either case, the findings of further research are unlikely to be more generalizable than those of existing studies.

What to do? With no intuitively obvious general theoretical base, the next best thing might be to ask basic questions about the existing research. The purpose of this paper is to map the conceptual limits and growing edges of the discourse of dropout in distance education. It identifies places where the existing literature seems illogical and other places where it seems to move into potentially fruitful ways of thinking.

B. The Literature of Dropout in Distance Education

It would be convenient if the discourse of dropout fell into several categories--such as research associated with student learning style, or with factors under the control of the distance teaching institutions, or with broad social issues. The literature includes these perspectives but it often blends them together. What follows is an attempt to depict the concerns of a large and rather murky body of knowledge.

Typically, it is numbers which speak: much of the discourse of dropout in Britain, North America, Sweden, Australia, and elsewhere is based on descriptive statistics that employ regression analysis. Often, these are variations of Tinto's (1975*) path model. They use records of enrollment, assignment completion, turn-around time, tutor or telephone contacts, and grading kept by the larger institutions or accumulated through readily coded, ex-post facto surveys. Tinto's model was developed for university freshmen living in residence and a major variable in it is social integration, something that needs to be operationalized for distance education research in rather tenuous ways. There is a whiff of opportunism to this kind of research--or, perhaps more accurately, a sense of harbouring raw numbers that beg to be cooked up.

The distance education dropout is often seen as a victim of personal or social stress, or of institutional failure. The student is thought of as participating in a broader context which influences his or her study behaviour (Dahllof, 1977, 1984; Willen, 1981, 1983, 1984). A number of discussions focus on some form of student aptitude /teaching application /student performance analysis. This approach sees the important interaction between learners and the teaching institution as a problem of "getting the mixture right" or matching teaching approach with learning style. They look at the student's motivation for enrolling (Coldeway & others, 1980; Sewart, 1983; Sweet, 1986), style of learning (Moore, 1976; Thompson, 1984), and personality type (Masson, 1987). Other investigations recognize student need for prompt feedback (Rekkedal, 1985; Bartels & Willen, 1985) in the mixture of face-to-face meetings, teleconferencing, audio or video presentations, tutor contact and written correspondence work within a course (Daniel & Marquis, 1983; Flink, 1978; Scales, 1984; Roberts, 1984; van Enckevort, 1986; Garrison, 1987). Several "Research and Evaluation of Distance Education for the Adult Learner" studies track students at Athabasca University and check the relationship between learner attributes, instructional treatments, and student performance (Coldeway & others, 1980). One major study included the factor of the difficulty of written materials (Chacon-Duque, 1985). The products of these studies are often compounded variables that become significant predictors for a reasonable amount of the dropout, but these factors are local in their application.

Similar kinds of quantitative work involve attempts, based on Rekkedal's (1973) study on turn-around time, to replicate some of his findings and compare dropout across institutions (Bartels & Willen, 1985; Taylor et al, 1986). Anxiety about the lack of inter-institutional standards for what is measured as completion rates, dropout, or persistence crops up frequently (Wong, 1987).

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*A reference list is available from the author or at the conference sessio

Siqueira de Freitas and Lynch (1986) suggest that noninstitutional variables account for the largest proportion of variance of student completion rates at Venezuela's open university where rates of persistence increased with enhanced counselling and learning centres. Rekkedal (1985) introduced the "personal tutor" in the system of distance education with good results, and Daloz (1986) described a successful strategy of mentoring for adult students, some of whom were taking distance courses.

Researchers agree that, although dropout has received more attention than any other aspect of distance education (Garrison, 1987; Rekkedal, 1985), it remains a difficult and perplexing problem (van Enckevort, 1986; Bartels & Peters, 1986; Woodley & Perlett, 1983). Garrison (1987) is not alone in his desire for dropout research based on a distance education conceptual model or theory that has explanatory and predictive validity. Despite the lack of good research in distance education (Moore, 1985) and the lack of fully evolved and tested theory, there are useful theoretical models. Approaches to distance education dropout that derive in part from Holmberg's (1985) "theory" or concept of guided didactic conversation are outlined by Roberts (1984) and Garrison (1987). Peter's (1971) "theory" of distance education as an industrialized form of education and Sewart's (1981) articulted concern with communication and interaction between students and teachers are also identified by Roberts (1984) as sources for a conceptual model.

Explanations for distance education dropout behaviour flowing from adult education research are associated with the delineation of "old" or "new" barriers to participation at the individual (student), the institutional, or the societal level (Rubenson, 1986; van Enckevort, 1986). This perspective tells a cultural story from a point of view sympathetic to the student trapped first by reproduction of the status quo and secondly by the use of new media. From a similar social perspective, Goodridge and Layne (1984) consider academic persistence in the context of democratization of higher education. In countries where distance education holds democratization of education as a primary goal, high percentages of "wastage" raise the fear that the "open door" is really a "revolving door" which rapidly returns disadvantaged students to the outside (Harris, 1987). Harris (1987) uses critical theory to analyze openness and closure in distance education and, while doing so, sees dropout in terms of social class conflict.

Not all distance education seeks to be open education; in Germany, the FernUniversitat only enrolls students who pass their university entrance exams, and even then expects many to drop difficult courses as proof that its graduates belong to an intellectual elite (Bartels & Peters, 1986; Bartels & Willen, 1985). In third world countries distance education universities serve another kind of elite--those upwardly mobile in their work environments. The huge Universitas Sains Malaysia only enrolls students who are employed and who have permission from their employers to study (Calvert, 1988).

While it is usual to view students who do not complete a course as victims--following the dominant trend of Sewart, Holmberg, Dahllof, Willen, Rekkedal, Rubenson and others who have seen the distance education student as dependent on the teaching institution to provide guidance and support--another perspective comes from the work of Moore (1972-1986) and Peters (1971). Moore's model of independent study and telemathic teaching and Peter's concept of the industrial nature of distance education emphasize the discretion of the student to purchase and use the educational product in a variety of ways to suit personal purposes. Autonomy and distance--in Moore's perception--range from high to low and produce a full cube of locations possibly occupied by students and by courses. Dropouts from high autonomy locations might be independent learners, efficient about accomplishing their learning objectives. Far from being victims, such dropouts might quit cumbersome courses in order to facilitate their learning goals. This is a point of view often held by course writers or course designers but rarely spoken of in the literature.

In dropout studies from higher education (mainly of American, campus-based, freshmen) it is recognized that students who are mobile enough to transfer from one institution to another appear as dropouts from the first (Pascarella & Chapman, 1983). Mobility is yet another way of viewing dropout. There is some basis for seeing distance education students as generally upwardly mobile in terms of social class: most of the OU's students typically held middle class jobs, but 51% come from working class parents (Harris, 1987). Even more striking figures would likely come from third world countries.

In summary, then: dropouts occur for many reasons and could be seen as scattered along an axis with positive and negative poles. In its negative range, dropout resembles headache--a symptom associated with many different calamities and ills. More positively, dropout can be a healthy choice for a mobile or independent learner. Unanswered questions about dropouts in positive or negative circumstances--What do they do after they dropout? Have they accomplished their own goals? What impact did the distance education experience have on them? and so on--beg for investigation. These questions take the researcher into the broader social context of education where theory from such disciplines as sociology, anthropology, political science or economics (rather than psychology or curriculum design) might prove meaningful.

C. Instrumental Utility of Dropout Research

Practical questions at the "micro" or ground level could still be answered in terms of particular student bodies and specific courses. Few distance teaching institutions know what their dropout statistics really mean in terms of student use of their materials and the degree of student satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their courses or programs. Such information is crucial in order to justify programs to funding agencies. And it is important that course designers and writers know what is effective in terms of teaching and communicating through different media. Few institutions can say exactly who their students are, how they came to distance education, what they want from such courses, how they study, why they may take only one or a whole series of courses, what the institution's public image is. Distance educators need a more intimate understanding of the processes of education in the many modes--from television to personal tutoring--in which they may teach. The problem of getting the mixture right must be solved again and again. What do students want--more independence and choice, shorter courses, flexibility, less emphasis on higher education credit and transferability and more on practicing skills? Or, do they seek more structure and instruction, more tutor interactions, longer courses, interdisciplinary courses, more assignments with more marking before marks "count," ways to identify socially with the institution, group work? While multiple realities surely co-exist, knowledge about which of these will likely affect a particular situation would help those whose job it is to design distance education. Such information would likely allow for the reduction of wastage--or the more negative kinds of dropout.

D. For the Sake of Argument

Another constant factor involved with dropout is completion of written assignments to demonstrate the student's learning since that is the index commonly used to determine whether or not a student in persisting. Do most adults like to do assignments? How else might students complete the educational feedback loop and the teaching institution demonstrate that it is doing a good job? Do students who drop out without completing any or all the assignments learn from the course and judge the experience as "educational"? Distance education is largely an information management process which, in itself, gives rise to questions about what is being measured by the usual assessment of course completions. Perhaps distance education is the purest form of adult education, in which all the best "andragogical" ideas should be employed to elicit rather than bank such knowledge as might empower its students. Knowledge, luckily, is unlike money in that the model for increasing its distribution is not the benevolent thievery of Robin Hood so much as it is the parable of the loaves and fishes. Hope is the underlying commodity of distance education--hope of improving one's lot. Liberation is the root motivation for many who embark on its programs--liberation from the constraints of their economic and social circumstances or their educational decisions thus far.

THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION: ENHANCED OPEN LEARNING OR INSTITUTIONALISED INEQUALITY?*

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In both Canada and UK, distance learning (DL) and open learning have in recent years become firmly established and widely recognised. There have been many attempts to encourage the diffusion of DL and to make access more open by 'internationalising' DL. The British Open University (OU) has admitted selected students from other European countries since the late 1970s. The International Extension College has since the early 1970s been fostering links with less developed countries (ldcs). Teaching materials have been exported and educational advisory services have flourished. The latest proposal, made in the Briggs Report, is for the creation of a 'University of the Commonwealth for Co-operation in Distance Education.'[1] The general idea, if not the precise proposal, has been accepted with remarkable speed. At the 1987 meeting of the Commonwealth Heads of Government (CHOGM) in Vancouver, it was agreed that a network should be established encompassing DL institutions across the Commonwealth. A working group is currently considering how this proposal might be effectively implemented. It is hoped that something could be in place, at least in embryonic form, as soon as 1989.

The objective is to encourage closer co-operation and more efficient and widespread dissemination of DL. The initiative rests on the philosophy that the rich must help the poor. Briggs is quite specific that the Commonwealth is an appropriate unit for a collaborative venture precisely because it encompasses developed as well as less developed countries.[2] The intention is that the former - particularly Canada and UK - should provide funding and expertise for a system that will yield the greater benefits for the latter.

'Aid' has always had its detractors, particularly when it transfers 'western' technology, culture, and institutions to ldcs. Fears have also been expressed about the implantation in ldcs of 'inappropriate' educational institutions and traditions, including those primarily concerned with DL. These can subvert indigenous culture and facilitate the imposition of alien traditions and expectations. Post-secondary education exacerbates inequality, which is contrary to the goals of development. DL, according to critics, can also confer privileges on the already upwardly mobile. As internationalisation proceeds, the controversy will presumably intensify. This paper will argue that, if this is to become a constructive dialogue, it is necessary to discard old paradigms and to search for fresh perspectives.

Evidence is ambiguous in regard to the impact of DL on ldcs. Often, it has been used in ways which are perfectly compatible with the goals of development, even as perceived from a radical perspective. In other instances, it has been seen as a cheap way of securing an appropriately trained workforce. In such cases, it would seem that the manpower needs of society take precedence over the self actualisation needs of the individual. The question is whether internationalisation will impose greater uniformity; and, if so, whether this would better serve the needs of the mass of the population. Officially, the expectation is that autonomy and diversity can be accommodated within the new network. Its purpose is not to dictate or impose but to support and facilitate. The debate is not about whether to have a network, but about what kind of network. It is about whether the network will support and facilitate DL systems which are appropriate to the needs of people in ldcs. Firm answers to these questions are obviously impossible until definitive proposals have emerged, but there are already some important clues as to the priorities that will influence the final outcome. A review of progress so far will provide some insight into the nature of these priorities.

It was at the 1985 CHOGM that the idea of a Commonwealth Open University received serious consideration, resulting in the establishment of the Briggs Committee. There was growing anxiety about increasing barriers to student mobility within the Commonwealth, not least because of rising university fees in Canada and UK. The point was put quite baldly in the report of a Commonwealth Meeting of Specialists which examined distance learning: 'As expenditure on study abroad ... was estimated at $1.6 billion p.a. it was important to investigate the potential of moving information or materials as well as people.'[3] Clearly, there was an important economic rationale behind internationalisation. It is equally clear that DL was being considered as a vehicle for delivering conventional university education, which critics would see as an agency for elite recruitment.

The Briggs report points to the existence of a common language and higher education traditions as factors favouring a Commonwealth network.[4] This could mean a network that will reinforce and perpetuate tradition rather than preserve regional autonomy and cultural diversity. At the 1987 Commonwealth Education Ministers' meeting (Nairobi), the view was expressed that the network should complement rather than supplant the work of existing providers, many of which are already engaged in collaborative international ventures. The effectiveness of the network could be impaired if those charged with its implementation are too cautious about treading on the toes of others. Perhaps what is needed is something which will challenge complacency where it exists, and transcend the limitations of existing structures.

Their own predilections notwithstanding, educators are inevitably constrained by government policies and ideologies. At the 1987 Commonwealth Education Ministers' Conference (Nairobi), there was reluctance on the part of Canada and UK to back the network idea unconditionally, even though it was supported by most ldcs. It was reported that '... none of the four "White Commonwealth" governments were ready to entrust £8 million per year to a self-governing university beyond their control.' But a network '... costing less and promising greater accountability would be another matter.' The same reporter observed that '... anticipated generous Canadian financial support may be conditional on a scaling down of the project and its location in Canada.'[5] On the eve of the CHOGM, the Vancouver Sun carried an article under the headline 'Network Plan Could Yield an Economic Plum', in which it quoted an observer who claimed that 'jobs, jobs, jobs' were '... at stake for the city that is named the head office of a Canada-led and Commonwealth-wide open university network. And there would be many private sector spin-offs.'[6] What educators say to the press and the politicians need not of course coincide precisely with what they really believe. Even so, the eventual outcome of this initiative is bound to be influenced by people whose motives are not entirely altruistic.

In a more general sense, attitudes towards education in Canada and UK do not indicate a climate that is auspicious for the Commonwealth initiative. In the wake of the Saskatoon National Forum, there seems to be growing support for closer federal control and greater provincial accountability in regard to education. The British Education Reform bill is frequently seen as a threat to institutional autonomy and as an attempt to impose uniformity. In both countries, there is a trend towards privatisation: increasingly, educational institutions are being exhorted to raise a greater share of their funding from private sources. The Communique issued after the Vancouver CHOGM suggested that '... in due course, the new institution would be able to generate further funding by bilateral and multilateral donor agencies, through contract work and by support from the private sector.'[7] It is to be hoped that the modest financial support governments have pledged will continue beyond the initial five year period, and that the network will not then be forced to look elsewhere for funding.

Donor agencies are not renowned for providing assistance without conditions. The private sector will not give support if the educational objectives of the network diverge markedly from its own. Both government and business appear to favour what might be considered a 'training' approach to education: that is, they tend to assess needs less in terms of the individual, and more in terms of the manpower requirements of society. As the Communique from the Nairobi meeting puts it: the network '... would overcome human resources bottlenecks through an emphasis on technical, vocational and continuing education.'[8] Increased reliance on external funding would presumably reinforce this emphasis. Training is of course vitally important for ldcs: it is necessary, but there are critics who will say that it is not sufficient.

The foregoing observations are to be taken as expressions of doubt rather than as objections to or criticisms of what is clearly a well-intentioned proposal. As more definitive plans emerge, there will be further debate, hopefully of a constructive character. One criticism of D/L in ldcs is that it derives ideological inspiration from modernisation theory. Similar comments will presumably be made about the Commonwealth initiative, particularly in the light of some of its underlying ideas and assumptions reviewed above. Geoff Arger has recently argued that the '... modernisation paradigm of development' underpins the assumptions and expectations of most attempts to implant D/L in ldcs. This paradigm rests on '... eurocentric premises which are unsuitable for the Third World.'[9] Conventional modernisation theory assumed that what was good for developed countries must also be good for ldcs; that what 'we' already have is what 'they' should strive to achieve; and that 'their' ultimate objective must be to become like 'us'.

If D/L is guided by such precepts it is unlikely to promote development. If, as seems likely, it is sometimes replicating in ldcs the attitudes and skills that are deemed relevant for the developed world, then perhaps it is inappropriate. But this is a negative rather than a prescriptive critique: it says what is wrong without indicating how to put it right. Arger concludes that we must '... ensure that distance education systems are implemented within a development paradigm which is relevant to the Third World, rather than to the industrial world.'[10] But where are we to find such a paradigm, and how will we know it when we see it?

It is probably impossible to answer these questions, and possibly unwise even to attempt to do so. Constructive debate and relevant paradigms will remain elusive if we address inappropriate questions. These are inappropriate questions because they are based on the dubious assumption that the developed world has paradigms and education systems which are relevant to its own needs. It is no longer a question of whether what 'we' have is good for 'them': it is whether what we have is good for us. Modernisation theory derives from a complacent era when most answers to this question would have been in the affirmative. Since then, fears of ecological catastrophe and societal disintegration have combined with the west's descent into economic crisis to banish complacency. The time has also come to banish old debates about outmoded doctrines.

A reappraisal of the achievements of DL in the developed world is required before it is exported to ldcs. Its major institutions grew out of an era of profound reappraisal. Its goals were 'developmental': it was to 'level up', to reduce inequality, to enhance open-ness and mobility. It is because those who have contemplated the problems facing ldcs share many of these objectives that it is important to know how successful DL has been. However successful DL is judged to have been, there is then the further question of whether it can continue to produce the right outcomes. It has recently won recognition and support from many whose philosophy is very different from that of the pioneers of DL. Modernisation, it seems, has reappeared in a new guise: the dominant political philosophies today are essentially about modernising the developed world. DL has been perceived as a cheap and useful instrument for attaining the goals of modernisation: both the Thatcher government in UK and the Macdonald Commission in Canada have recognised its potential. The question is whether DL institutions will be (further?) deflected from their original purpose by the attentions of recent converts. If they are becoming less relevant to 'our' needs, what are the chances that they can adequately serve the needs of ldcs?

Even before the austerity of the 1980s, there was evidence that the OU was not attracting students from all sections of the population. There has since been a succession of fee increases. Students are having to wait longer for admission. The more affluent are sometimes enrolling in more expensive 'associate' programmes where instant admission is guaranteed. Access will become less open as more courses require students to own a computer. An enquiry is currently investigating why some groups are under-represented, and what might be done about this. Financial stringency, and government pressure on institutions to secure private funding, will not make it easy to reduce imbalances.

By international standards the OU is among the most securely established DL institutions. Yet in recent years it has been preoccupied with survival and with maintenance of existing standards. This has meant that overseas activities have been accorded a lower priority, and have had to be guided by considerations of profitability. It has proceeded slowly and cautiously in establishing a presence overseas, and has looked to Europe rather than the Commonwealth. Its protracted negotiations with providers in the Republic of Ireland show that setting up a collaborative network is problematic, even within a unit as small as the British Isles where most people really do speak the same language. There is always the suspicion that the dominant partner in a network will, perhaps unwittingly, use DL to impose its culture on others.

Canadian DL institutions have shown less reticence about taking on an international role even though there is no national network. Canadian providers have not been conspicuously more successful than the OU in reaching those whose needs are greatest. Political and financial constraints are not radically different in Canada. Similar pressures are developing to persuade DL institutions to become efficient providers of appropriately skilled manpower. The likelihood is that they will be expected to organise their overseas operations according to the same priorities. Already, the issue of aid to ldcs has evolved its own distinctive vocabulary. In the developed world, what seems to have been happening is that these same notions of 'returns', 'accountability', and 'conditionality' are penetrating into people's perceptions of education. In the present climate, it is easy to see how these preoccupations could come to pervade the attempt to internationalise DL.

This should not be allowed to happen because it is by no means clear that we have systems and priorities that are congruent with our needs. The achievements of DL require close critical scrutiny so that we can know where we have failed and why. Only then can we evolve a structure that genuinely serves the needs of human beings here. If we really did have such a system, it could more appropriately be exported to ldcs. Without it, we run the risk that the internationalisation of DL will merely reinforce and institutionalise the inequalities that permeate both the developed and less developed worlds.

FOOTNOTES

* Thanks are due to Nazira Ismail and Keith Harry of the International Documentation Centre, Open University, Milton Keynes. They are not responsible for the views expressed here.

1. Commonwealth Secretariat, Towards a Commonwealth of Learning: A proposal to create the University of the Commonwealth for Co-operation in Distance Education. London. 1987.

2. ibid. p. 3.

3. Commonwealth Secretariat, Commonwealth Meeting of Specialists: Distance Teaching in Higher Education. Final Report. London. 1985. p. 11.

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5. 'Tapping into the Common fund of Knowledge', Times Higher Education Supplement. 31 July 1987.

6. 'Network plan could yield an economic plum', Vancouver Sun. 11 September 1987.

7. Commonwealth Secretariat, Commonwealth Heads of Government Communique. Vancouver. 1987. p. 16.

8. Commonwealth Secretariat, Commonwealth Education Ministers' Communique. Nairobi. 1987.

9. Geoff Arger, 'Promise and Reality: A Critical Analysis of the Literature Available in Australia on Distance Education in the Third World'. Journal of Distance Education. Vol. II, no. 1. 1987. pp. 41-58.

10. ibid.

THE EXPERIENCE OF LEARNING THROUGH HOME STUDY

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"Home study is an easy way to learn if you've got self-discipline" was one learner's assessment of learning through home study. She chose home study because child care responsibilities limited the possibility of attending classes in person. As well, classes of interest to her were not available in the area. The idea of "being your own boss" attracted her to the home study format.

One learner described learning through home study as interactive; "use your own mind a lot, use your own understanding and your own experience in improving some of the ideas that are there." He challenged the content, reflecting on his past experience, questioning the sense it made in his world. Not impressed by the writer's credentials, course layout, or fancy graphics, he was looking for "down-to-earth" information derived from experience and "written in common-sense language."

The reasons why adults choose to learn through home study and their perceptions of the process were examined in an interpretative study, using semi-structured interviews, of ten learners who had purchased "Farm Estate Planning", a non-credit home study course offered by Alberta Agriculture. Since adults in such settings are free to use materials for their own purposes rather than being influenced by course requirements, findings from studies which have examined learners' perceptions of credit courses may not provide appropriate information for course designers. As Tough (1982) from his studies of self-directed learners reported, learners wanted to set their own pace, use their own learning style, keep the learning situation flexible and impose their own structure on the learning. Studies in self-directed learning (Tough, 1971, 1982; Coolican, 1975; Penland, 1977; Brookfield, 1986; Verduin, 1986) have tended to emphasize the complexity of the learning tasks, the time taken and the network of people consulted by the learners rather than how learners used the resources they found. Tough (1982) commented on the relationship between the reasons people choose to learn and their use of resources.

In this study the learner's intentions for the learning experience shaped the way they used the course materials. Some learners needed information on estate planning in order to make their own plans for their future. These learners were 65 years or older and at a point of change where they needed information before action could be taken. As Dan said, "We chose this course out of necessity - because our estate has an awful lot of loose ends and we need to move along towards putting these things in order." For these learners these personal and business decisions will affect their retirement years and, in some cases, their childrens' livelihood.

Another group of participants who needed information to better understand their situation and possibilities for the future included those who were the "children" in a two-generation farm family. Ranging in age from 30 to 45, these people are actively engaged in a family operation with their parents or in-laws. They were interested in the options available to the older generation as the "senior partner's estate plans will affect the future of the farm operation." Although these learners were not at a point where they were thinking about transfer of assets to the next generation, they were taking initial steps in developing an estate plan. A financial plan aimed at a comfortable retirement and a will outlining guardianship for their children were the two primary considerations.

Some participants in this group were hoping to pass information along to their parents or in-laws. The notion of moving toward developing an estate plan was expressed gently by Gayle, "maybe I can get my father-in-law to read some of this" and directly by Harry, "I gave my father-in-law a binder - they were wanting him to get his things in order so I gave him this book so he could learn everything."

Those choosing farm estate planning out of professional, rather than personal, interests were people in a position to pass estate planning information along to farm families or farm management students. "I wanted to get an understanding of what's involved in estate planning so I could pass it along to my clients" was Ian's reason for buying the package. "I got it to supplement information in the classroom . . . to see if it was consistent with what I was talking about" volunteered Chris. Of the three groups of learners interested in farm estate planning, this group was the least emotionally involved in the topic.

Reasons for choosing the home study format were practical and personal. Practical issues include the impossibility of attending farm estate planning courses because of childcare and business responsibilities, or because no in-depth course was available.

Participants commented that they bought the course because it was prepackaged information: "basically I'm lazy . . . you take a home study course and all the information is provided to you. If I have to dig it up and research all that information, forget it!"

A need for a total package and a regard for the source of information was expressed as well. "I have a high regard for Alberta Agriculture. The information is usually pretty well researched out. Somebody else has done a lot of thinking about what's involved in estate planning . . . you just have to pick it up." These learners viewed Alberta Agriculture home study packages as a short cut in the learning process, as credible resource material specified, provided, and sequenced.

A desire to "be your own boss and work at your own speed without deadlines, assignments or exams" was also identified as a reason for choosing to learn through home study. The opportunity to structure use of course materials and be free of external pressures appealed to these learners.

Personal reasons for selecting a home study format revolved around what some learners considered the "sensitive nature of farm estate planning issues." "I think the social and emotional implications of estate planning make it more appropriate to do in your own home." This was a consideration for those participants who were at a decision-making point in life. To them, the subject was emotional, intensely personal and a private family matter.

The Farm Estate Planning course was generally seen by participants as information, rather than instruction. Participants liked to keep course materials for future reference. The fact that the course material was always going to be available to them relieves them of the pressure of "learning everything. If I want to check something, I can just look it up."

Brent contributed reasons for choosing a home study format generally, but was at a loss to comment on why he chose the Farm Estate Planning course. In response, he simply said, "I didn't choose it, it was given to me by my son-in-law who thought I might be interested."

Audrey felt that home study was an "easy way to learn if you've got self-discipline." But this was not the feeling of all participants. Ian said that home study was a harder way to learn because "most people procrastinate when there's no pressure to open the book and read." It can be difficult in that along with freedom from the traditional setting comes the responsibility of organizing, implementing and following through as a self-directed learner.

Uses of Course Materials

The Farm Estate Planning binder was used in a variety of ways, however 'as a future reference' resounded in each participant's comments. Three participants looked at the video component before starting the course and described this activity as motivating. "Watching the video really made me think about the parents' position in all this. It gave me incentive to find out more."

In use of materials, participants' experiences can be arranged in three groups: those who glanced and skimmed, those who arranged the topics in their own order and those who studied the topics in the order presented. Within this discussion, comments regarding self-assessment questions, activities and graphics are also relevant.

A glance and skim through the course was the extent of use for three participants. Ian had not intended to go through the course in detail "until fall, when things aren't so busy in the office." He planned one professional updating activity each year. Most often this plan was achieved through home study courses because of lack of opportunity, not preference for the format. He preferred the discussion and 'expert-in-attendance' offered in the traditional classroom learning experience.

Harry also skimmed through the course. He had purchased the binder for his father-in-law and had not intended to read it thoroughly. He, too, had previous experience with home study courses, but commented that "I think I learn more in a group setting that offers two-way communication with the instructor."

Brent, who had been given the course, glanced at the materials. "I read a little here and there, but I didn't go any further with it because I had just suddenly decided that it wasn't absolutely necessary for me." Brent has had extensive experience with home study courses. He was familiar with the format and knew how to use course materials. "I just go to work on it. You have your instructions and questions, an area for comments, worksheets and you start. I go through the outlines first, and scan it as fast as I can. From then on it sinks in better." But he only glanced at this course. "This wasn't my idea, this Farm Estate Planning course came to me, and when it came, I looked at it and said, Oh, Yah, Good, Good, but then within a few weeks I decided I didn't need this information."

In each of these experiences, the learner did not perceive a personal need to learn more about farm estate planning, but did find out that the course was available. Glancing over the topic headings in the index may be the beginning of an awareness of the components in the estate planning process.

Participants that arranged the course topics in their own order viewed the table of contents to decide the order to look at the topics. Jack, Chris, Gayle, and Audrey are in this group. As these people looked over the table of contents, Jack and Chris chose to look at topics in most interesting to least interesting sequence. Gayle approached the course by first looking at topics that were familiar to her and ending with those that she had had little experience. Audrey chose to look at the least interesting topics first, saving the most interesting for the end.

Chris and Jack did not go through all the topics in the course, but called the course finished once their content interest areas were satisfied. Neither did the self-assessment questions or activities. Chris thought that the cartoons, outlines and key concepts highlighted in the margins were useful features. Jack and his wife discussed the content and marked some of the material to share with their sons.

Gayle began with a topic that was familiar to her and then moved on to new material. She found the self-assessment questions helpful, "I read it through, the questions made me think through it a little more." She did only those exercises that were familiar, concentrating on those pertaining to her situation. Gayle did not write responses to the questions in the book. She felt that she wanted to pass the binder on to her brother and didn't want him to read her answers. She found that re-reading difficult sections helped her to understand the content.

Audrey, saving the most interesting topic for the end of the course, used the self-assessment questions as a "pre and post test." She then concentrated on areas missed in the pre-test. Although Audrey used the self-assessment questions to structure her use of the material, she, like Gayle, did not write responses in the binder. She indicated that taking the time to write responses was not important to her.

She had a plan for using the course material before it arrived. She knew "I would have to discipline myself to one chapter each week to get the course finished before spring." She discussed the course content with her husband, especially sections that were difficult to understand.

The learners who arranged the topics to suit themselves structured their learning experience to be self-motivating and to satisfy their need for information about the estate planning process.

The participants who started on page one and read until the end of the course felt that "somebody who is an expert had a reason for putting the topics in that order so that's the way it should be studied." Dan and Evelyn were ready to transfer assets to the next generation so the material was very relevant. Frank was in a situation that will be affected by his father's estate plan, so he was very interested in the estate planning process. All three expressed concern that they 'didn't want to miss anything.'

The self-assessment questions were not used by this group. It seemed more important to these learners to establish a relationship between the course content and their situations than to find answers to the exercises. In reading through the material and working through examples, their knowledge of the estate planning process increased.

Audrey, Dan, Evelyn, Frank, and Jack, in varying degrees, have discussed the material with family members. Dan, Evelyn, and Frank have gone back to relevant chapters and are using the course as a guide in developing an estate plan. Evelyn was following the strategies outlined in the course for initiating family discussions about estate planning. She reported that so far her children and husband have been very supportive of her efforts to get the estate plan organized.

The participants found the course easy to read and well organized. The cartoons and graphics were useful in providing a break from the text. "Pages and pages of writing turn me off - drawings and charts keep me interested" was an opinion expressed by several people.

Participants familiar with formal learning experiences tended to comment on course objectives, outlines and summaries. Chris said that "the qualifications of the writers is one of the first things I looked at ." These people also reported using the self assessment questions more extensively than those participants who had fewer formal education experiences. The extent to which activities and exercises were actually used is difficult to determine as none of the participants wrote responses in the binder.

Reactions to Learning Through Home Study

The participants' reactions to the learning experiences are related both to course content and format. Participants felt that the course "was good value for 30 dollars," commenting that the scope and amount of the information was more extensive than they had expected. This reaction to the contents indicates that they did not have a prior understanding of the issues that must be addressed in developing an estate plan.

Course content sparked remarks like "now I have a better understanding of what's involved in putting an estate plan together," indicating that knowledge has been gained through the learning experience.

In working through the material, some participants consistently applied the content to their situations. "The course was more applicable to my situation than I thought it would be. I thought it would be just the basic theory, that somebody, you know, sitting in their insulated office dreamed up, but it surprised me . . . how relevant it was to what is actually happening around me."

Gayle tried to apply the content to her situation and found herself emotionally involved with the course at times. When queried as to whether emotional involvement helped or hindered progress through the course, she thought for a moment and replied, "you should be emotionally involved, somehow that urges you on."

Dan discovered that the Farm Estate Planning course was "like a road map, but you don't know where you are going yet. That's the problem of the person taking the course." In working through the course he realized that it was not a 'how-to' course, but the outline of a process that began with the individual's goals. He knew that before he can put his affairs in order he has to "figure out exactly what I want to do and there's no course in the world that can tell you what the goal is." He bought the course seeking information and ended up searching for a view of himself in retirement, which proved an emotional journey.

Brent's reaction to receiving the materials was mixed between a desire to make his own decisions about what he should be learning and a sense that perhaps he should know more about estate planning. His son-in-law had discovered this course and gave it to him, implying that he needed to know more. Brent talked about working through the course next winter with a group of neighbours or perhaps family members.

The home study format provoked reactions ranging from apathy to enthusiasm. "It's here, I'll take a look at it when I have time" describes Ian's response to receiving the binder. Evelyn was excited when the binder arrived and looked forward to finding time to read the course. "I was very enthusiastic, to see what was said and what I could learn from it."

To Dan, going through the course was hard work, but "something that had to be done. You get a lot of satisfaction out of helping yourself and taking steps toward solving your own problems." The 'hard work' notion was echoed by Jack. Reading was not one of his usual activities. He described his reading style as "word by word." For Jack, "taking the time to do it was a chore, something you have to discipline yourself to do."

All those who used the materials at all expressed varying degrees of frustration when faced with concepts not easily understood. A recurring comment related to what three learners perceived as the biggest difficulty with home study - that there was no verbal clarification of written material. Nearly all had difficulty with one section or another as they came across unfamiliar terminology and concepts. Most re-read material until they felt comfortable with their understanding of the concept. Some discussed the difficult parts with family members or co-workers. No one considered contacting an outside 'expert', although when the idea was proposed each could identify people that could have helped them to understand certain concepts. They did not think that difficulty in understanding was insurmountable, just a bit frustrating.

Frustration for some extended beyond difficulty in understanding concepts to not being able to find answers to the self-assessment questions in the text. "It is frustrating, when you know that the answer is in the text, but you can't find it."

Difficulty was also expressed by Chris in terms of evaluation. "With home study like this, there's no assignments or contact with a tutor - it's hard to know exactly what you learned." He went on to explain that he thought that most people really don't have the discipline to go through a home study course thoroughly and learn a topic properly.

The idea of a need for an external motivator was expressed by Harry, not in the sense of an outside contact, but "in getting credit for the course, toward a certificate or something." For some learners, recognition for their efforts is lacking in non-credit home study courses.

Success and satisfaction was expressed by all participants, even those who had only glanced through the binder. They had used the materials to the extent that they wished.

This initial analysis of the data was directed by the three research questions. These were the learner's reasons for choosing the home study course, their use of course materials, and their reactions to learning through home study. As data were discussed and analyzed in these groupings, commonalities and differences were separated into sub-groups. In examining responses within these sub-groups, three themes in the learner's descriptions or their experiences emerged.

These themes included the learner's sense of accomplishment derived from the learning experience, the knowledge that performance in the course was free from external evaluation, and the learner's personal perspective of learning. Within each of these themes there was a common element, and that was the extent to which the learner wished to control the learning experience.

The Learner's Sense of Accomplishment

Participants who satisfied their need to know more about estate planning expressed accomplishment and pride in their efforts. One learner commented, "there is a lot of satisfaction in learning more about something that has been on your mind, something that you have to face." The majority of participants now planned to involve others in learning. Some participants intended to lead their families through the estate planning process; others were encouraging family members to read the materials and two intended to pass the information on to clients and students.

None of the participants would say that they knew everything about farm estate planning, but would also point out that this was not their intention. Each person had their own objectives for that learning experience, some more specific than others. Their sense of accomplishment came in part from meeting those unwritten, and often unspoken, objectives.

This sense of accomplishment extended beyond gaining knowledge about farm estate planning. Some learners expressed pride and pleasure in learning, one saying that he "enjoyed the exercise in mental alertness", another saying that she felt "it is important to keep your mind active and keep on learning." They liked the feelings associated with learning and understanding new ideas which they described as pride, self-esteem, and "just feeling good about yourself."

Measuring what has been accomplished is up to the individual in a course of this format. Learners measured this accomplishment in different ways. For some, a sense of accomplishment came from knowing that they had the perserverance and self-discipline to read something and understand the meaning. For others, accomplishment was related to applying estate planning information to their situations, or being able to "hold your own in a discussion about estate planning options with the in-laws," and some felt accomplishment in purchasing the course as they saw this as the first step toward gathering information they would need in the future.

Some learners described accomplishment in terms of course credit, exams, assignments, and external evaluation. For them, a sense of accomplishment based on reading and applying the information might not be enough to sustain interest throughout the non-credit home study learning experience. However, acknowledgement from an external source, they thought, would reward the individual's learning efforts and contribute to a sense of accomplishment.

Evaluating the Learning Effort

Although accomplishment is related to evaluation, the two concepts emerged from the data as separate entities. To participants, ideas about evaluation were expressed in terms of external, imposed evaluation. "I probably wouldn't have taken this course if there was an exam" was clearly expressed by all participants. This feeling was even expressed by those who felt that they would learn more if there was an exam because studying for the test would drill the concepts into them.

The learning experience described by the participants was seen as free from external evaluation, and therefore perceived as safe. Fear of being seen as ignorant or stupid or "having to learn things that I don't want to learn" made home-study courses attractive to these learners. Having the power to self-evaluate the learning experience provided the opportunity to learn in a non-threatening environment. For participants, the self-assessment questions in the course were not viewed as valuable for self-evaluating the outcomes of the learning experience. In the learners' perception, correct responses only indicated that the concept or information had been remembered, "something that you can rhyme off." Learners placed little value on remembering content, as the course materials would always be available as reference. Activities and examples that encouraged the learners to apply information to their situations were seen as more valuable components of the course materials. One learner commented "when I thought about what I was reading - it made me think about our situation - and my brother's. This feeling sort of urged me on."

Learners described a variety of techniques they used in assessing what they had learned. These included reflecting on the course content in terms of their past experience, applying information and ideas to their situations, and discussing the concepts with significant others.

For one learner who taught farm management courses, assessment was the most difficult aspect of non-credit home study. He felt there was really no way of telling what had been learned. From his perspective, the individual learner had a limited ability to self-evaluate. He saw exams, assignments, and discussion with an instructor as useful in evaluation.

A different view was expressed by the majority. Most learners in the study expressed confidence in their ability to assess what they had learned. Indicators of learning were described in terms of "applying information to improve my situation" and changes in behaviour. One participant wondered if anybody else could really evaluate what he had learned because "they don't know what I was doing before."

The Individual's Perception of Learning

The differing perspectives on assessment led to an analysis of the data in terms of perceptions participants had about learning. For four of the ten participants, learning experiences had often been solitary experiences, beyond the classroom walls. These learners were comfortable learning on their own, and felt they had the ability to determine what, when, and how they would learn. They also felt capable of judging what had been learned. They described learning as self-improvement, a change in their behaviour that was long lasting, and as solving a life-problem. Three learners described learning in terms of keeping up-to-date and applying information to their situations. These learners also believed learning to be instrumental in self-improvement and valued all types of learning opportunities. They felt they were capable of learning on their own, without an instructor or facilitator.

A different view of learning was expressed by the remaining three participants. These learners did not feel that they had the self-discipline needed to control the time and place for the learning experience, or the ability to set the criteria and determine the outcomes for the learning experience. All expressed interest in learning situations that provided organization of the what, when, and how of the learning experience. These learners doubted their ability to be self-motivating throughout the non-credit home study learning experience. Feeling motivation or pressure and getting recognition for their learning efforts from an external influence was seen as useful in learning experiences. As these learners were not pursuing estate planning information for personal reasons, their perception of learning may well change in a different learning experience.

Control in the Learning Experience

The control exerted by the learner in the learning experience was influenced by their perception of their role in the teaching/learning process. In the perception of these learners, the Farm Estate Planning course did not have an instructor. Learning took place as a result of interaction with course materials. The participants saw themselves as in control and responsible for the outcomes of the learning project. Some were more comfortable than others in exercising control and organizing the learning experience to suit their own purposes.

The learner's ability and desire to exercise control may be influenced by previous learning experiences. For example, solitary learning experiences may have fostered a personal approach toward learning and the use of available resources. The learners' perception of their ability to exercise control over the learning experience shaped the way they used the course materials. Being able to articulate desired outcomes for the learning experience or having a notion about how to structure the learning experience also seemed to influence the way the learner exercised control throughout the learning experience. These learners were able to be both teacher and learner in the Farm Estate Planning course.

Three learners expressed the need to have an instructor in a learning experience. The role of the instructor was seen as one of motivating learners, clarifying concepts, and recognizing efforts of the learners. The social aspects of learning in a group were seen by these learners as beneficial and stimulating to the learning process. For these learners, learning through home study was difficult and not personally enjoyable, but a task requiring more self-discipline than they possessed.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to describe the experience of learners in a non-credit home study course. Prior to the data collection, research into self-directed learning, adults as learners, and instructional design of self-study materials helped to identify the focus of the study in terms of the learner's reasons for choosing the learning experience, the use of course materials, and the reactions to learning through home study. Once the data were collected and analyzed, further research reinforced the validity of the findings.

The reasons learners cited for choosing the Farm Estate Planning course were pragmatic, reflecting the findings of studies done on self-directed learning by Tough (1971), Coolican (1975), and Penland (1977). While the majority of participants in those studies chose their learning projects in order to apply new information or to apply a new skill to problem solving, learners in this study also recognized the importance of personal change and integration of knowledge and experience as essential to the learning experience.

In this study, learners chose the home study format because it was the only learning method available on the topic that suited their criteria for the learning experience. This response is similar to a suggestion of Spear and Mocker (1984) in that self-directed learners do not really plan their learning process, but select a course of action from those readily available. They contend that the individual's environment with its available learning resources and the topic itself are the forces that direct an adult's learning project.

In using the course materials, some learners expressed difficulty in clarifying concepts and sustaining interest in the course on their own. Simon and Belz (1980) and Hutton (1982) agree that self-directed learning can be facilitated by contact with peers or significant others. Developers of home study course materials can facilitate self-directed learning by helping learners identify those who would be significant others in their learning projects, and encouraging discussion.

For learners who see themselves as alone in a non-credit home study learning experience, the materials should provide assistance in designing a personal learning experience and identifying goals and previous knowledge. Self-assessment strategies may contribute to the learner's sense of accomplishment, as well as help the learner to assess the outcomes of the learning project. Rather than focusing on the content, such strategies must encourage learners to decide what they want to achieve, to think about what they have read, to draw from their own experience, to try out new strategies, and to talk to other people about their learning.

In gaining understanding of the learner's experience, insights into adults as learners and their use of non-credit home study materials were revealed. The learner's perception of the learning experience is valuable to developers and deliverers of non-credit home study materials and to adult educators.

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RÉACTIONS A UNE PERSPECTIVE D'EFFORT INTELLECTUEL POUR EFFECTUER UN APPRENTISSAGE

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INTRODUCTION

Apprendre n'est pas synonyme d'effort. Il est en effet possible de faire des apprentissages qui ne nécessitent aucun effort intellectuel. Cependant, il existe des situations où l'apprentissage est impossible sans effort. Mais est-ce naturel de chercher à faire un effort intellectuel? Qu'est-ce qui peut donc inciter une personne à faire un effort lorsque par ailleurs il est reconnu que la tendance habituelle est de faire le moins d'effort possible?

Ces questions surgissent régulièrement lorsqu'on observe les comportements des adultes en situation d'apprentissage. Cette observation nous a conduit à faire l'hypothèse que la façon de réagir à l'effort intellectuel pouvait avoir une grande influence sur la qualité de l'apprentissage. Nous n'étions d'ailleurs pas surprise de voir dans la littérature que la raison la plus souvent invoquée pour expliquer un succès ou un échec est la quantité d'effort accompli (Graham, 1986, 1988). Cela nous a amenée à vouloir connaître les réactions des adultes devant un apprentissage qui exige un effort.

Une revue de littérature ne nous a pas fourni de réponse à ce sujet. Les recherches sont en effet à peu près inexistantes, non pas parce que l'effort est un concept oublié par les chercheurs, mais plutôt parce que ces derniers l'ont surtout considéré dans des situations où il était déjà accompli.

C'est ce qui nous a incité à entreprendre une recherche sur les réactions de personnes à la perspective d'un effort intellectuel pour apprendre. Afin de nous guider dans la formulation de notre hypothèse, le contexte théorique a été établi à partir des travaux dans des secteurs connexes. Ces secteurs sont au nombre de trois:

1. Motivation à l'accomplissement;
2. Facteurs pouvant influencer le degré de motivation à s'accomplir;
    - probabilité subjective de réussir
    - valeur du succès
    - attrait de la tâche
    - attitudes face à la réalisation de soi
3. Anticipation de la fatigue.

Les écrits consultés dans ces différents secteurs laissent voir des différences marquées entre les hommes et les femmes, ce qui nous a amené à penser que ces dernières devaient réagir de façon plus vive et plus négative à la perspective d'un effort. Pour cette raison, ce sont des femmes qui ont été choisies comme population cible. L'objectif de cette recherche étant d'identifier les réactions de personnes à la perspective d'un effort intellectuel, nous avons donc étudié, à l'aide d'un instrument projectif, la réaction de 33 femmes, de niveau socio-économique moyen, à l'éventualité d'un effort intellectuel à faire pour apprendre.

CONTEXTE THÉORIQUE

L'être humain a des besoins à satisfaire. Un de ceux-là concerne la réalisation de soi. McClelland (1953) a prénommé "motivation à l'accomplissement" cette tendance relativement stable à rechercher l'actualisation ou la réussite, c'est à dire à se proposer des objectifs difficiles, à les réaliser, et à réagir affectivement à ses succès et ses échecs. Selon qu'une personne est plus ou moins motivée, il est donc probable qu'elle se fixe des objectifs plus ou moins élevés selon le cas et qu'elle fait l'effort conséquent pour se réaliser et atteindre ses objectifs. Et plus l'apprentissage proposé est susceptible de lui offrir l'occasion de satisfaire son besoin, plus elle est disposée à consacrer l'énergie nécessaire pour réussir. Comme on peut le voir, et suivant l'affirmation de Wendt (1955), le concept de motivation à l'accomplissement implique la notion d'effort.

Les recherches sur la motivation à l'accomplissement démontrent de plus en plus clairement que celle-ci est définie selon des standards masculins qui ne permettent pas d'expliquer l'accomplissement chez la femme (Eccles, 1986). C'est peut-être ce qui explique la différence remarquée entre les hommes et les femmes dans les nombreuses recherches réalisées par McClelland (1953, 1955, 1958, 1971), Atkinson et Feather (1966), Atkinson & Litwin (1960), Weiner (1970), Weiner & Peter (1973), Weiner & Potepan (1970) et beaucoup d'autres qui se sont intéressés à ce sujet. Plusieurs chercheurs expliquent cette différence par la présence de différents facteurs qui peuvent contribuer à diminuer le degré de motivation à s'accomplir. Par exemple, Horner (1968, 1972) a avancé que la femme avait peur de la réussite. Cette explication est cependant de plus en plus contestée et les résultats des recherches sont plutôt interprétés en fonction des aspects sociaux de la situation (Paludi & Fankell-Hauser, 1986), de la valeur de la réussite Eccles, (1986), du choix des types de tâches pour se réaliser (Roberts, 1984) et des attitudes face à la réalisation de soi chez la femme (Galliano, 1981).

Devant l'ensemble des résultats des recherches, nous avons formulé ainsi notre hypothèse: La perspective d'un effort à faire pour réussir un apprentissage intellectuel amène habituellement une réaction de rejet de l'effort chez la femme.

MÉTHODOLOGIE

La cueillette de données, faite auprès de 33 enseignantes du primaire agées de 35 à 40 ans d'une même Commission scolaire, a été réalisée à l'aide d'une épreuve projective inspirée des travaux sur la motivation à l'accomplissement commencés par McClelland (1953, 1958). Cet outil consiste en un stimulus écrit à partir duquel les sujets doivent imaginer une histoire. Selon McClelland, ce type de stimulus entraîne le sujet à se projeter dans le personnage de l'histoire, ce qui permet de supposer que dans une situation réelle, semblable à celle qu'il décrit, sa réaction serait la même. Le stimulus utilisé est le suivant:

> HISTOIRE DE ROSE
> "Rose est placée devant l'éventualité d'un effort intellectuel réel à faire pour apprendre quelque chose."
>
> 1- Qui est Rose et dans quelle situation se trouve-t-elle?
> 2- Qu'est-ce que cette situation lui propose d'apprendre?
> 3- Qu'est-ce que cet apprentissage représente pour elle?
> 4- Quel type d'effort est-ce que ça lui demande?
> 5- Quelle est sa réaction à cet effort? Pourquoi?

Un rendez-vous est fixé par téléphone avec chacun des sujets qui sont rencontrés individuellement et par la même personne.

Une analyse qualitative des données est réalisée à l'aide d'une grille élaborée à partir des informations fournies par le contexte théorique et par les protocoles issus d'une pré-expérimentation.

RÉSULTATS

Le premier résultat qui se dégage de cette recherche est que la femme, contrairement à l'hypothèse qui prévoit une réaction de rejet, accepte de faire l'effort nécessaire pour apprendre et ce, dans une proportion de 84.8%. Ce résultat est intéressant mais surprenant car il s'oppose aux recherches réalisées dans les domaines identifiés dans le contexte théorique. Est-ce parce que le sujet pouvait choisir la situation d'apprentissage, ce qui n'était pas le cas dans la majorité des études consultées où la situation est imposée? C'est une explication qu'il ne faut pas rejeter et le fait que près de 50% des protocoles présentent un personnage féminin dans une situation d'apprentissage en-dehors du milieu professionnel (loisir, culture, etc.) peut nous faire croire que ce n'est pas l'effort qui ferait fuir la femme mais les conséquences ou le coût potentiel de la réussite ou de l'échec dans des contextes particuliers.

Une autre explication possible de ce résultat est reliée au contexte socio-économique actuel dans le domaine de l'enseignement, plus précisément à l'incertitude dans lequel se retrouvent beaucoup d'enseignants vis-à-vis leur emploi. Cette explication est d'autant plus valable que la cause de perception positive de l'effort la plus souvent mentionnée dans les protocoles est la possibilité d'atteindre un but, soit: trouver un emploi, garder celui que l'on a, ou améliorer son rendement au travail.

Le deuxième résultat concerne l'effort tel qu'identifié par ces femmes. Bien que le stimulus émet clairement l'idée d'un effort intellectuel à faire, ce dernier est souvent défini dans les histoires comme un investissement important soit en termes d'énergie nécessaire pour surmonter des obstacles matériels, soit en termes de quantité de temps à investir. Ce résultat est tout à fait congruent avec le personnage décrit dans les protocoles, soit une femme mariée et mère de famille, statut semblable à celui des sujets eux-mêmes. S'engager dans une activité d'apprentissage signifie donc pour ces femmes de réorganiser leur horaire et d'accepter une dépense d'énergie supplémentaire. Cependant, ce type d'effort est différent de l'effort intellectuel qui est davantage lié à la concentration de l'esprit sur l'objet d'apprentissage et à la maîtrise des habilités nécessaires à l'apprentissage. Leur perception de l'effort intellectuel reste donc encore inconnue.

Au-delà de l'analyse des résultats obtenus dans les protocoles, un aspect important se dégage de la réflexion menée tout au long de la démarche effectuée durant cette recherche: il s'agit de la façon d'aborder la notion d'effort intellectuel.

A l'origine de cette réflexion, une définition précise et opérationnelle de l'effort intellectuel s'imposait pour guider cette recherche. C'est en s'inspirant des différentes notions de l'effort en général et de l'effort intellectuel en particulier, trouvées en philosophie, en pédagogie, en psychologie industrielle et en psychologie générale, que nous avons ainsi défini ce concept:

> **"Perception subjective de l'énergie nécessaire pour surmonter des difficultés, des obstacles ou des résistances liées aux habilités nécessaires à l'apprentissage, en vue d'acquérir un objet désiré ou nécessaire, cet objet prenant la forme de notions, de concepts ou d'habilités dans le domaine intellectuel".**

Cette définition permet de mettre en évidence l'aspect subjectif de l'effort et nous oblige à mettre l'accent sur le vécu du sujet et non sur ce qu'un observateur peut déduire du comportement de ce dernier.

Malgré cela, le contexte théorique est présenté selon une approche mécaniste: l'effort y est défini "in vitro" et comme pouvant être influencé par des facteurs liés soit à la tâche, soit au sujet, soit à la situation. Tout au long de la démarche d'analyse des données, il devenait cependant de plus en plus évident que cette approche ne reflétait pas bien la réalité et qu'il fallait davantage assigner un rôle central à la valeur subjective accordée au contexte global, soit:

- **une personne,**
- **ayant une perception d'elle-même, de ses habilités,**
- **qui est placée devant une tâche intellectuelle exigeante et ayant pour elle une valeur subjective,**
- **et des résultats escomptés tout aussi subjectifs,**
- **en regard de l'environnement dans lequel cette personne évolue.**

L'approche systémique s'est donc peu à peu imposée comme étant celle permettant de mieux saisir les nuances pour comprendre chacune des situations décrites dans les protocoles. Ainsi, les éléments de chaque histoire doivent être analysés en relation les uns avec les autres, c'est à dire considérer la personne (sujet), qui se retrouve devant une tâche à faire, dans un contexte particulier. C'est la synthèse personnelle de ces trois éléments qui déterminera la perception de l'effort nécessaire d'une part et la réaction à cet effort d'autre part.

L'effort est donc vu comme la résultante de la perception qu'a le sujet de lui-même, c'est à dire son expérience passée, ses aspirations, ses habilités, etc., de la tâche à faire, et du contexte dans lequel elle doit être faite.

Comme on peut le constater, cette approche s'accorde bien avec la dimension subjective de l'effort intellectuel. Il suffit de changer un seul élément du système pour modifier la perception de l'effort à faire et la réaction à cet effort. C'est ce que reflètent les histoires contenues dans les protocoles. Les études ultérieures sur l'effort devraient être élaborées à partir de ce type d'approche. Elles pourraient apporter un éclairage plus complet sur la façon dont chacun des éléments du système sont reliés entre eux pour aboutir à la perception de l'effort. Les travaux de Bateson (1977), notamment sur la théorie des systèmes, seraient un outil précieux dans ces recherches.

L'objet de cette étude était d'ouvrir la voie à un champ de recherche encore peu exploré. A notre surprise, la majorité des femmes, soit 84.8%, acceptent sans hésiter de s'engager dans une activité d'apprentissage qui exige un effort. Les données recueillies ne sont pas suffisantes pour permettre de conclure sur les réactions des femmes devant la perspective d'un effort intellectuel à faire pour apprendre. Il serait donc intéressant de voir des prolongements à cette recherche. Trop longtemps ignoré, ce domaine d'investigation peut nous permettre de mieux saisir la variété des comportements des personnes placées en situation d'apprentissage car la réaction à l'effort intellectuel nous semble être un pivot à tout apprentissage intellectuel d'importance. Nous souhaitons donc que cette recherche serve de point de départ à une meilleure compréhension de ce facteur dans une démarche d'apprentissage.

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LIFE SATISFACTION OF THE ELDERLY IN A NURSING HOME

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The investigation of life satisfaction for older people has been a persistently studied subject with suggestions of health, income, social contacts and activity being variously linked to levels of satisfaction. (Larson, 1978) (Okun & Stock, 1984) (Ragheb & Griffith, 1982) (Riddick, 1985) (Seleen, 1982) (Snow & Crapo, 1982). The studies have concentrated on that portion of the senior population who live more or less independently in community based dwellings, i.e., apartments, their own or relatives homes, etc. This is not surprising since the vast majority of people over 65 are managing on their own while just under 10% are living in long term care settings. (Senior Citizens Bureau, 1987) The study of life satisfaction for the institutionalized elderly however, has been a grossly neglected topic of study and leaves questions about quality of life open to speculation and perhaps misinterpretation.

Investigation of quality of life issues within long term care is timely and important not only because such a gap exists, but also because of what might be termed the popular professionalization that is occurring in long term care. Professionals in both government and private circles have spearheaded a dramatic increase in the attention given to long term care. For whatever reasons (demographics, long waiting lists for spaces in long term care facilities, increased public scrutiny of institutional conditions, trends towards accountability), this rapid shift underscores the urgency with which researchers must take up the responsibility to examine quality of life issues for institutionalized elderly persons.

The implications for the adult educator are just as dramatic not only because it is the adult educator who will pay attention to the learning needs and interests of the elderly, which this paper will suggest could play a critical role in life satisfaction; but also because it is the adult educator who will be responsible for the continuing education and upgrading of those staff who work in the long term care setting, many of whom have been in the field for some time and who entered with little if any formal training regarding the elderly with whom they work.

PURPOSE

This paper reports on an investigation which set out to examine the self-perceived life satisfaction of elderly residents living in a nursing home, with particular attention being paid to those common elements that might be practically manipulated to enrich the satisfaction of everyday living. This is not to say that issues such as personal space, proximity of the building to downtown, concerns about a certain medical decision, government policy, etc. would not affect life satisfaction. It is simply a matter of limiting the scope of this investigation to matters within the control of institutional staff or the residents themselves.

METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

Well being studies over the past forty years have looked at happiness (Kozma & Stones, 1980), morale (Lawton, 1984), life satisfaction (Neugarten, Havighurst & Tobin, 1961) (Salamon & Conte, 1984) and overall well-being (Larson, 1978) (Zautra & Hempel, 1984). The accepted methodology used to study life satisfaction has been quantitative in nature with the Life Satisfaction Index A (Neugarten, Havighurst & Tobin, 1961) being one of the early and most well used instruments.

Being a beginner in the field of research it seemed sensible to use reliable but current instrumentation and procedure in my own study. Thus it was that I started out with a small sample population of people living in a nursing home, intending to administer the Salamon Conte (1984) Life Satisfaction in the Elderly Scale. The LSES is a forty item questionaire that explores the eight most commonly accepted domains of life satisfaction gleamed from over forty years of research: health, finances, social contacts, activities, meaning, goals, mood, and self concept. (see also Brockett, 1985)

I quickly discovered that this plan was an inadequate approach to furthering my own knowledge and understanding of the meaning of life satisfaction as perceived by the people who live in the nursing home. For example, in answer to a question on the number of friends, one person chose "a great many" for a response. However, exploration of this question in an unstructured interview resulted in the person going on to tell me that they had no friends in the nursing home and no friends that came to see them any more. What had prompted their response was a thought about life before institutionalization. Another example which supports my decision to abandon the initial design came from a person who answered "never" in response to a question which asked if she tried to spend time with people. However in discussion with this person, she was able to tell me that throughout her life she had preferred to spend time with one or two close friends or her family and still enjoyed these contacts on a regular basis. It was only because she preferred not to spend time with people in the institution that she answered "never". And finally, is the example of the person who answered "never" when asked how often he visited his doctor, but who went on to tell me that his doctor came in to see him every Wednesday.

So relying partly on intuition, I abandoned my original plan and perhaps with it traditional methodology. It had become clear to me as I verbally administered the questionaire (necessary because many people had limited sight or hand ability), that people wanted to talk. I allowed the method to become one of relatively unstructured discussion with the LSES questions acting as a stimulant to the exploration of their thoughts and feelings. I encouraged elaboration without agressive probing. I met with each person between three and seven times, had lunch with some, went on outings with some and was invited into some of their rooms. I let the sample grow to 25 people because residents would hear about "this nice lady who wanted to talk" and they would come up to me and ask to be included in the study; or they would say "be sure to include Mrs. __ in your study". For three months I was exposed casually to the daily routine and many of the 118 people living in the nursing home, but spent most of that time with the ten men and fifteen women who eventually came to be included in this study.

FINDINGS

Social Isolation

A common theme brought up over and over again were the respondents' feelings of isolation, loneliness, and embarrassment. Not only did they feel cut off and isolated from their pre - institutional way of life, but they perceived that they were now categorized as confused, frail and generally abnormal. One person put it this way: " my friends think I'm dinghy just like all the others in here". To make matters worse, social relationships with other residents in the institution did not seem to proliferate, nor did relationships overcome the persuasive negative perception that dementia touches most people living in a nursing home.

There are two critical points about this finding that require follow up research. First of all, is the perception that most of the people institutionalized suffer from some form of dementia. The respondents not only believed their outside friends saw the nursing home that way, but most of the respondents also thought that others in the home were demented. "Lost in a sea of senility" is a crude, but graphic, portrayal of perceptions. The second critical point about this finding is that this institutional environment is not conducive to the encouragement of warm friendly relations between those who are not demented.

Learning

A second finding was the importance that the respondents attached to their interest in being continually challenged by learning endeavours, in continually stretching their current level of knowledge about almost anything, and in keeping up to date on what's happening "out there" in the world. It might be that this interest springs not only from a genuine internal motivation, but also from their need to alleviate the perception about being incapable of intellectual thought. While each respondent prized their own intellectual alertness, they felt this capacity went unrecognized and unstimulated.

Follow up research could look at whether a lack of recognition and opportunity for intellectually stimulating activity contributes to the residents' (and indeed the publics') perceptions that most people in the nursing home are more or less demented. Are opportunities for developing meaningful social relationships thwarted from the start because no one perceives anyone else is capable or interested?

Reminiscence

A universal aspect to emerge from discussions was the talking that respondents did about their past lives. One person didn't even wait for me to start asking questions - right after my introduction, he announced: "Well let me tell you my life story" . . . and he went on non-stop to elaborate on how he'd come to this country as an immigrant and started out with just thirteen chickens. With poetic detail, he talked his way up to the current year in which he gave his children each $40,000.00 for a Christmas present. Not all respondents were this enthusiastic right at the start; but unsolicited reminiscence was a feature of every respondent. Within this spontaneous reminiscing, it was possible to find themes linking into each of the eight domains of life satisfaction as predicted by the literature.

An in depth review of research and literature would contribute to understanding the implications of this seemingly universal urge to reminisce and its relationship to feelings of life satisfaction for those who live in a nursing home.

Activity

A fourth finding was that the most satisfied persons (as indicated by themselves) did not engage in organized activities offered by the recreation department, but rather worked at hobbies or exercises by themselves. They spent most of the day by themselves following their own regime. They commented about how "busy" they always were. It would appear that just as Ellis & Witt (1984) suggest, a sense of freedom is central in defining a recreation experience.

Somehow, these few people had escaped the routine of institutional programming, had maintained a sense of freedom and control over their activity, and participated in accordance with their own internal rhythms, their own internal motivation and their own self determined goals. This was in contrast to the majority of respondents in the study who were less satisfied with their activity domain and yet participated in many more scheduled recreation activities.

Further research is needed to explore the perceptions of residents about their daily activity in order that programs contribute to meaningful satisfaction.

CONCLUSION

The results of this investigation are at once exciting and yet demanding of a cautionary stance. Exciting because they reveal a picture suggesting that what is important in the feeling of life satisfaction for the institutionalized elderly person may be different from that of their community based cohorts. While health and finances are often suggested as primary indicators of life satisfaction for a community based population of persons over 65, this investigation did not uncover the same degree of importance attached to those two domains. The results of this study suggest that further research is essential to understanding the signifigance of perceptions about the extent and effects of dementia in an institutionalized population. For example, are social relationships affected by the perception that nursing homes house demented people? How might this perception be altered? Secondly further research is needed to explore the relationship between recognition and stimulation of one's intellectual capacity, and feelings of life satisfaction.

Caution is needed however because the people included in this study represent those who have maintained their mental functioning capacities, and there are those within the institution who do suffer from some form of dementia. Caution in drawing conclusions is necessary because the study was exploratory and needs to be followed up with more sophisticated attention to design and methodology.

If further research can develop a clearer understanding of the issues important to quality of life in long term care settings, then adult educators will face exciting challenges as they facilitate the filtering of this knowledge into practice. It might be necessary to look at changing attitudes and perceptions among the residents and the public, and possibly among staff, policy and funding interests. Secondly will be the task of designing and implementing educational experiences that not only challenge but also promote the careful expansion of the elderly person's mental capacities. One of the most meaningful contributions adult education makes in coming years may be the improvement of the quality of life of nursing home residents.

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LIFE SITUATION AND PRIOR LEARNING OF ADULT LEARNERS STUDYING AT A DISTANCE

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I. Introduction

There is a growing movement in higher education in North America to link educational opportunities to the whole lives of adult learners. Many educators have called on higher education to recognize that learning is a lifelong process which is not confined to the walls of a campus classroom (Chickering, 1981; Cross, 1981; Daloz, 1986; Gamson, 1984; Gross, 1977; Keeton, 1977; Kolb, 1984; Torbert, 1972). Many of these same educators, together with developmental and personality theorists (Levinson, 1978; Loevinger, 1978; Perry, 1968), suggest that when providing learning opportunities we consider the whole learner by recognizing their prior learning, their life situations (Crary, 1982) and their developmental patterns (Weathersby, 1981). This study focussed on some aspects of life situation and prior learning with adult learners who were studying at a distance at the undergraduate level.

The purpose of this study was to examine various dimensions of the lives of learners who study at a distance such as their present life priorities, perceived challenges, and locus of control with respect to the other activities and events in their lives. In addition, the study investigated the attitudes and perceptions of these learners to the notion of prior learning assessment; a way of recognizing the learning (to be distinguished from the experience) which a person may bring when he or she enters university.

This study was carried out at Athabasca University, an open- and distance-education university located in central Alberta. To quote from part of its mission statement:

"Athabasca University is dedicated to the removal of barriers that traditionally restrict access to and success in university-level studies and to increasing equality of educational opportunity for all adult Canadians regardless of their geographical location and prior academic credentials..." (Athabasca University, 1987, p.1)

Since its beginning in the early seventies, Athabasca University's enrolment has continued to grow. For instance, between 1980 and 1986 the average rate of increase in enrolment was approximately 20% annually (Conway and Powell, 1986). The number of enrolments are expected to reach 14,600 for the year 1987-88 (Powell, 1988, in press). We know that there is a great deal of diversity in the learners who take courses

(Coldeway, 1980; Peruniak, 1984) but we know relatively little about what is happening in the rest of their lives or whatever kind of helpful links might be forged between that and their educational pursuits.

One of the assumptions of this study was that the education provided by the university is more valuable if it fits together with and enhances the rest of life than if it is disparate. Too often learners are left to make the relationships entirely for themselves. A second important assumption was that the concept of life situation was important in understanding some of the patterns of learning which were taking place at Athabasca University (AU).

The term "life situation" is used here to refer to the major activities and important events in an individual's life. These factors can be thought of as ranging on a continuum from mainly external influences to mainly internal ones. External aspects of the life situation might include one's occupation, family, marriage, hobbies, social and community networks, finances, and personal projects such as building one's home. Internal factors would include one's hopes, dreams, beliefs, values, personality and health, as well as the motivations, experiences and prior learnings of the individual. Obviously these factors interact in complex ways and are also affected by cultural, social, and historic contexts. For ease of discussion the distinction between internal and external factors in this study is similar to Rotter's (1966) distinction between an individual's internal and external locus of control. Regardless of orientation, it is the individual's perception of reality that is important. Life situation in this study was largely operationalized by the questions asked on a questionnaire, the Life Situation Survey.

II. Method

A questionnaire was mailed out to a random sample of 1000 AU learners. Of those learners who were presumed to have received the questionnaire (it was not returned by the post office), 224 out of 966 completed it for a return rate of 24%.

A. Data Analysis

For purposes of this paper, the data reported consist of participants' responses to the Life Situation Survey, a 36-item open-ended questionnaire. There were two general types of analyses conducted on the data, a quantitative interpretation of perceptions as reflected on the Likert-scale ratings and a qualitative analysis of written comments by learners. Space requirements preclude an extended discussion of the written comments. The following discussion will focus mainly on the quantitative results.

A. Participants

The general characteristics of the participants are described below. The majority (77.1%) of these individuals were between 23 and 43 years of age, were married

(69.2%) and were female (70%). About half of the sample had children. About one third of the participants reported no dependents while a slightly larger proportion (36%) reported a spouse and children. The remainder had a spouse only or were single parents.

Most of the group (81.3%) had had some postsecondary education. Indeed, the majority (62.1%) had taken university courses and 30 percent of the sample reported that they had a university degree.

Most of the people in the sample had jobs (81.8%). Eighty-five percent of the sampled population reported their occupation. Of these, just over half (56.6%) were in the professions, while just less than half were in the support service sector or in technical trades. There was wide diversity in the occupations, but the largest identifiable groups included administrators, managers, teachers and health professionals (especially nurses). These groups accounted for almost half of all the occupations.

This sample was fairly representative of the wider body of learners at AU for demographic variables that are reported (Athabasca University, 1985; Conway and Powell, 1986), except that learners in the sample had had more university experience (62%) than was reported for the norm (41.5%).

III. Results

The highest ratings on the questionnaire came in response to questions concerning motivation for learning. Participants indicated that their "philosophy of life" was very much an influence in their pursuit of higher education (4.2 out of 5). They also indicated that learning for its own sake or for general interest was important (4.0 out of 5). At the other end of the scale, they indicated that they did not feel pressured by others into taking courses (1.4). Furthermore, there did not seem be too great pressures in their lives from unemployment or from health and child care responsibilities (1.7, 1.8 and 1.8, respectively).

In response to the question of whether learners would find it desirable to have their prior learning and life experiences taken into account in educational programming, the rating was only slightly positive (3.5). There was wide variation in this rating, seemingly dependent upon whether the respondent felt that the process might jeopardize AU's credibility.

In terms of course performance at AU, the average mark for the whole group for all courses that were passed was 81%. Less than five percent had failed even one course.

Some of the most revealing information came from the comments made by respondents. For the sake of brevity they have been summarized below into a number of themes in no particular order of priority:

(1) The importance of nurturing and enhancing the relationships within the family.

(2) The value of AU courses for career and professional development.

(3) The value of AU courses for personal development. Many individuals mentioned that their success in AU courses had enabled them to re-build their self-confidence and feelings of self-worth particularly when such self-confidence had been bruised by divorce or by being laid off work.

(4) A desire to know more, to reach outside of the present life situation.

(5) The value of being self-directed and self-motivated. This was stated repeatedly as an attitude that was very highly valued and considered necessary for successful study with AU. Part of this theme was the belief that "you are what you make yourself."

(6) A desire to find some way of speeding up the process of attaining a degree through AU, though not at the expense of credibility.

(7) A positive attitude toward learning and the attitude that a person should be all that he or she can be.

An analysis was done of the question of what life priorities the respondent would rate as most pressing at the moment. The entire group indicated that the list of life priorities was dominated by a concern for career, family, and education, in that order. A second set of priorities clustered in the middle of the rankings. These included leisure, finances, relationships with significant others, specific short-term tasks (e.g., paving the driveway), house building and issues of quality of life. Finally, a third group of priorities were at the bottom of the list though of great concern regardless of their position. These priorities included health, personal growth, and the daily maintenance of the household.

Women (13%) were almost three times as likely to mention personal growth in their priority list as were men (5%). Women (25%) mentioned the importance of significant social relationships outside of the family more than four times as much as men (6%).

IV. Discussion

Clearly, this study was but a preliminary step in trying to make sense of the complex lives of adult learners who study at a distance. While there was an implicit developmental perspective in the study, the focus was upon the more immediate life situations of participants. In the brief space here, only some of the highlights of the study can be presented.

The study had several main findings. First, distance education is often thought of as attracting only the marginal learners. This perception is reinforced by the relatively high drop-out rates (e.g., over 50%) in institutions dedicated to such learners. The sample represented here showed the fallacy of such an overgeneralization. As a group, these learners were very successful in their course work, self-directed in their life situations, and positive in their outlook on life.

Second, the sample was mainly made up of women. The results showed that women tended to perceive themselves as more inner directed than men and had a greater concern for others. If characteristics of this sample can be generalized to a majority of the "successful" learners in open- and distance-education institutions, then these organizations will need to be particularly sensitive to the changes taking place in women's aspirations. For instance, instructional and evaluative practices should be judged partly by what they contribute to aspects of personal development such as self-esteem.

Third, these learners were not all from the professional sector but were equally represented in the support-sector. They were not mainly single women on a career path, but rather their lives were highly interwoven with concerns of the family.

Fourth, for those institutions who might be considering the development of practices for the assessment of prior learning, it was reassuring that a majority of these learners were in favour of such a mechanism but only insofar as it could be done without lowering standards at the institution. Maintaining excellence should be everyone's concern and these learners indicated this concern, particularly in their written comments.

Finally, the results indicated that education was very important to this group of learners. It ranked closely with career and family in terms of overall importance. Education was perceived by many as a way of enlarging the definition of who they were, in terms of self, and who they could become in terms of competence.

If we know more about the life situations of our learners, say, from courses in prior learning assessment, then we can more easily find the links between the lives they lead, the subjects we teach, and the methods we use to teach them. The responsibility for finding the connections should not have to lie exclusively with the learner or any one office such as Student Services but should be of fundamental concern to the entire institution.

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ORIGINS OF THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT CONCEPT

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There has been much discussion recently about the importance of social commitment to our profession. Even casual perusal of the literature reveals adult educator's concern with the necessity to respond to society's social needs. In fact, questions about our social involvement were significant enough to merit a conference entitled Rekindling Commitment in Adult Education held at Rutgers University in 1984. Contributors to the conference report stressed adult education's obligation to become actively and critically involved in improving society. According to the report's editor, "social commitment embodies a reaffirmation of humanistic values followed by concerted action designed to effect positive social change (Höghielm, 1985).

As anyone familiar with our rich history knows, this is not a new phenomenon. Debates about our social commitment and the place of social action in adult education have appeared before. It is the purpose of this paper to remind you of these past traditions by an historical sketch of how the community development concept evolved in Canada and the United States during the four decades following the 1919 Report. In other words, following publication of the seminal document in our profession wherein individual self-actualization and social improvement were identified as adult education's dual goals. The community development concept became one guide for the attainment of a better society.

What then were the origins of the community development concept in adult education? The concept which is defined here as the combination of adult learning and social action for the purpose of educating people for collective co-operative enterprises in local control of local affairs grew out of social issues debates in adult education (Pyrch, 1983). The debates centred around four questions. Was collective social improvement a significant and necessary goal to be pursued by the adult education movement? Was the community the best setting for such improvement? Was co-operation the means to that end? Was there a place for social action in adult education?

Social Improvement. The social improvement theme had two features. First, adult educators developed a social consciousness during the initial forty years of the movement in the sense that they hoped a broad range of social problems could be solved through adult education. Second, adult education for social improvement was controversial. Arguments in support of the social improvement goal often were made at the expense of the individual self-actualization goal and vice versa.

The emphasis placed on social improvement in the adult education movement was directly related to the socio-economic conditions of the time. These varied from prosperity to depression and from peace-time to war-time. Although the dual goals of the movement were articulated by the end of the 1920s, individual development was the favoured goal during that decade. Self-actualization prevailed as Canadians and Americans enjoyed the economic good times and the material pleasures that technological innovation and mass production brought. After the Crash of 1929, new priorities emerged. Many adult educators, recognizing the traumatic conditions of the time, advocated collective co-operative efforts at the local level as a way to respond to the need for social planning and reform. They visualized a society in which grass roots democracy based on mutual aid and self-help would overcome social malaise and also deflect the appeal of radical ideologies.

But social improvement through collective co-operative action was resisted by those who feared it would infringe upon individual liberty. Divisions appeared and a controversy developed about the relative importance of the movement's dual goals. The ensuing debate highlighted the AAAE annual meeting in 1932 when advocates of individual development as the foremost goal clashed with those advocating a perfectly co-ordinated society. The sides were described as "never reconciled" by the editors of the Journal of Adult Education in 1932. Because social issues were paramount and social reform crucial, the debate continued and Ely (1939) noted that the same divisions were "propounded, debated and left unsettled year after year."

The debates concerning social responsibility were not a focus of attention during the 1940s when we were preoccupied with national mobilization and reconstruction. They reappeared during a debate over social philosophy in the early years of the AEA founded in 1951. At this time, the term community development began to appear encapsulting collective action for social improvement in adult education. Community development enthusiasts argued vigorously that theirs was the best way, with others propounding other approaches. Still others searched for a middle ground. To no avail, however. Alter (1959) described adult education as "a house against itself." Try as they might, those who stressed individual self-actualization and those who emphasized social improvement remained unreconciled.

Social improvement through collective co-operative action was a reformist notion. During the Depression when social reform was essential and during WW II when collective action was required to mobilize national resources, we generally acknowledged the need for collective improvement. That recognition was the seed of the community development concept. Social improvement lost its sense of urgency in the 1950s as socio-economic conditions improved for most people. Notions of general social change were incompatible with national priorities bent on preserving a social system threatened by foreign ideologies and nuclear war. Our interest in social improvement was deflected to specific areas of social malaise at home, to the conditions endured by the Native Peoples for example, and to development needs in the Third World.

Community. The community was seen as the ideal unit of human association in which to achieve social improvement. The community was large enough to function as a substantial social unit that was broader than families and groups, and therefore a mirror of society as a whole. It was small enough to forestall some of the fears of those who thought community development over-emphasized social improvement. Adult education to build community was less threatening than social improvement to change society as a whole.

Commencing in the early 1920s, the community movement so well articulated by Lindeman (1921) stressed the marshalling of local resources and established numerous community organizations to co-ordinate adult education activities. Innovations in community-wide adult education continued throughout depression and war. We were hopeful that the end of WW II removed the necessity for central direction and that power would devolve to the community where Canadians and Americans would revive grass roots democracy. However, the agreement was not unanimous and some adult educators thought there was too much emphasis on community. Trends in Canada and the United States toward more centralization, the renewed threats of war, and a new era of intolerance generated by the fear caused by those threats worked against the prospects of a return to grass roots democracy. The small self-sufficient community of people governed by mutual aid and self-help reminiscent of the New England community of old seemed doomed by the rapid changes of the twentieth century. A new conception of community was needed.

Community was regarded as good and desirable, often abstractly and usually undefined. There were two seldom differentiated meanings of community: the territorial community of people sharing a physical space and some values, attitudes, and beliefs that influenced the individuals within it who had a sense of belonging to it; and, the relational community of people who shared primarily a sense of belonging and not necessarily a physical space. Community simply defined as territory was insufficient in face of social turbulence and physical mobility.

Many of our colleagues missed the significance of the relational community. Five professors of adult education, entrusted by their peers in the Commission of Professors of the AEA to provide a conceptual framework for community education, relied on a territorial definition (Hallenbeck et al., 1962). Their definition reflected a strong rural sociology bias and excluded more of Canada and the United States than it included. Perhaps there was insufficient knowledge about community in the mid-twentieth century for its adherents to design a practical rationale for its significance in an urban and highly mobile society.

Adult education in the community was the second link in the chain of inquiry that created the community development concept. The third link evolved from discussions about the means to the end of social improvement in the community.

Co-operation. Closely related to the community movement was a belief in a basic co-operative spirit that when stimulated would lead us through depression, war, reconstruction, and beyond into a happier future. Co-operation was viewed in three ways: philosophically, in that the co-operative ideal was the very substance of human relationships; as a practical economic strategy by which the optimal material benefits for all would happen with a common sharing of resources; and socially, in that co-operative effort was a social experience that we lacked and needed in an age of rapid change that strained the traditional forms of human association.

Champions of the Antigonish Movement continually emphasized democractic co-operation as the key to a healthy future. According to the 1943 manifesto of principles adopted by the CAAE, voluntary co-operation was the alternative to individualism and mass-collectivism. Brownell (1952) declared that the social attributes of co-operation and neighbourly concern typical of communities were essential in a democracy.

Co-operation was not without its critics. Father Coady and Benson Landis reported deep-seated opposition in Nova Scotia to the Antigonish Movement's plans for collective co-operative action (Pyrch, 1983, p. 112). Some of the opposition to social co-operation was deflected during depression and war. During the 1950s, social co-operation was not debated as such, although the concept of social action certainly was. Social co-operation contained an action element and it was that element that aroused much interest.

Education and Social Action. Widespread enthusiasm for social planning during the Depression compelled adult educators to explain their role in social action. Most accepted the validity of the learning-action symbiosis. During the 1930s, Eduard Lindeman, William Kilpatrick and Morse Cartwright noted the importance of study and thought prior to action, action determined by learners during the process and not before or apart from it (Pyrch, 1983, p. 96). These commentators accepted the idea of education in preparation for social action, as did those who wrote the twenty-seven volume social significance series published by the AAAE between 1937 and 1941. That idea appeared periodically. Spence and Verner (1954) argued that adult education could prepare learners for an educational approach to social issues by "helping them recognize issues, anticipate change, and acquire the knowledge essential for an intelligent approach to action." Two years later, Verner suggested adult education was concerned with educational processes leading to social action (Verner, 1956). Like the consensus in the 1930s, the ideas advanced by Verner and Spence projected an active though non-directive role for adult education in social change processes. That role was the essence of the community development concept.

Verner continued to investigate community development and in 1959 offered a distinction between the education and action components. He identified community development as an educational method leading to co-operative community action that should not be confused with the action itself (Verner, 1962). In that stance, he joined Lindeman, Kilpatrick and Cartwright. In another way he differed from them. In 1960, he declared that learners required education in order to adjust to change while preserving the social order (Verner, 1960). That position implied more of a passive role in social change than the active role perceived a generation earlier. Verner did not explain his change of view. In 1954, he had written about adult education preparing learners to anticipate change. Anticipating change suggested more input than merely adjusting to change. Perhaps he reflected the mood of the 1950s intolerant of ideas seeking to amend the social order.

The complexities in the notion of education in preparation for action and an active though non-directive role in the processes of social change were not analyzed in depth in the period under review. No commentator addressed the logical validity of the proposition that education could prepare learners for action and yet remain aloof from the nature of that action. Although the community development concept was clear in the literature in the 1950s, it was by no means certain that adult educators understood how the concept influenced practice, whether it could, or, indeed, whether it should. Clearly, our social commitment had led us into unchartered and sometimes rough waters.

Summary. Interest in the dual goals of the movement began gradually in the 1920s when educators' responsibility for social improvement, emphasized in the 1919 Report, became apparent. Adult education for social improvement was the main interest after 1929 and continued through the 1930s and 1940s, and into the 1950s. Adult educators perceived the community as the ideal unit of human association within which social improvement could be achieved and the concept of co-operation as the means to that end. Inquiry into collective co-operative improvement of society led to an examination of the relationship between education and social action. These issues were inextricably wound up in the community development concept in the 1950s.

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE FIELD OF ADULT EDUCATION AS CONCEPTUALIZED IN KNOWLES'S THEORY OF ANDRAGOGY UTILIZING KUHN'S MODEL

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An issue which has been the center of much discussion is the lack of a framework within which adult education workers and researchers can view their work. Although there is not and has not (see Bryson, 1936) been agreement by all that such a framework is needed or wanted, there is general agreement among adult education workers and researchers in the United States that such a framework does not exist. Some, Merriam (1987) and Darkenwald (1982) among others, point out that one result of this condition is the lack of cumulative research in the field. The body of research that has been developed consists largely of descriptive studies which, according to Darkenwald (1982), are apparently uncoordinated by anything other than an interest in investigating an area within adult education. Is there no theoretically sound way of encouraging cumulative research?

Malcolm Knowles is one of the few thinkers in adult education who has developed an integrated theory (Merriam, 1987) which he calls andragogy (Knowles 1972, 1980). Can an analysis of andragogy lead to the development of a framework within which workers and researchers can view their efforts? Is it possible that within Knowles's theory, there may be found elements which will assist in the development of a body of cumulative research within adult education? More fundamentally, is there a conceptual tool which will enable us to conduct an analysis of Knowles's work for such elements?

Thomas Kuhn, a theorist in the history and philosophy of science, has developed a conception of the work of researchers in the natural sciences (Kuhn, 1962). His thought, intended to help to explain the progress of science in the natural sciences, appears to be of assistance in this task. A look at Kuhn's theory is in order before we turn to an examination of Knowles's work.

Kuhn's Theory - Paradigm and Pre-paradigm

According to Kuhn (1962), scientific progress in the natural sciences is the result of the activities of scientific communities. These scientific communities are the source of scientific progress because the members of the communities share a paradigm. It is reference to the paradigm which makes it possible for Kuhn to describe the process of scientific growth in natural science research communities.

A paradigm, for Kuhn, is a conceptual model which identifies the substantive matters with which a research community is concerned. It also provides guides which determine procedural matters of concern to the members of the community in question. In short, it specifies what the research community's universe is; what is or is not appropriate scientific practice; and what is or is not a part of the universe considered appropriate for study by the members of the research community.

There is, however, in the beginning, no research community. Kuhn labels this period, preceding the acceptance of a community's first paradigm, the pre-paradigm period. This appears to be a very dynamic period. Early in the period, individual researchers practice science which is not cumulative. Kuhn writes of individual researchers who "practice science, but ... the results of their enterprise do not add up to science as we know it" (Kuhn, 1970, p. 163). For Kuhn, science consists of cumulative "puzzle-solving" (Kuhn, 1970, p. 166).

Later in the pre-paradigm period, Kuhn suggests that there are groups of researchers who have developed varying mental structures which serve the function of paradigms for their various groups. There is competition among the various groups for control of the field. The competition ceases when a group of researchers in the field come to agreement about what is or is not proper scientific practice and what elements constitute the universe to be studied by researchers in the discipline. They have accepted a paradigm and a community of researchers has been formed.

Kuhn states and Gutting (1980) stresses that Kuhn's work concerned itself with research in the natural sciences. Gutting offers strong criticism of the direct use of Kuhn's theory to analyze the progress or state of research communities in the social sciences. Consideration of Gutting's criticism and of Kuhn's own words would appear to lead a serious reader to concur; yet, such use of Kuhn's insights continues. Why?

Researchers in the social sciences (Kalifa, 1981, for example) agree that it is indeed inappropriate to directly apply the explanation of the evolutionary process undergone by research communities in the natural sciences to analyze the process undergone by research communities in areas outside of the natural sciences. They note that Kuhn stresses the community nature of research, and thinkers such as Kalifa assert that there exists a similar evolutionary process which helps to impel what progress there is in the work of research communities outside of the natural sciences.

Given the non-cumulative nature of the work done by researchers in our field, however, it appears that such communities do not now exist in adult education. How is it possible, then, to make Kuhn's model useful to us in adult education?

Kuhn posits that the researchers who are practicing science at the early stage of the pre-paradigm period must find the guides, provided to members of research communities by their paradigms, somewhere. Accepting the pre-paradigmatic status of adult education research in that individual researchers are practicing non-cumulative research, from where are the elements which will guide their cumulative practice to come?

Gutting seems to point the way when he suggests that we, researchers in areas outside of the natural sciences, ought to look among those whom we study for paradigms. Researchers into adult education share their interest in the field with workers, some of whom find Knowles's theory useful as a humanistic (Elias and Merriam, 1980) framework for their practice. It would seem logical to look at Knowles's theory, then as a potential source of information which may assist individual researchers during this very early stage in the development of adult education research.

Elements of a Practitioner's Paradigm

If Knowles's theory is to be of use, it must provide a number of elements. It should provide a clear picture of the universe with which it concerns itself; should present problems which are appropriate to it; and should present parameters which encompass their solutions and the methods which are used to develop them. It appears that such elements may be present in andragogy.

Central to the universe presented in Knowles's theory is the spectrum. Learners, around whom his theory is centered, are viewed as moving from the status of dependent learner, when pedagogical assumptions are true of them, to the status self-directed learner, when andragogical assumptions are true of them. These learners move along two levels of the spectrum. On one level, most learners would be dependent at the beginning of their study in a content area. On another level, however, some of these same learners could be self-directed. This characteristic would assert itself on the content level when the knowledge of content reached a state which made independent learning possible.

Adult learners' experiences, which are sources of further learning, their readiness to learn, and their orientation to learning are more and more internally rooted as they move from the state where their experiences, readiness to learn and orientation toward learning are determined by others. In short, self-directed learners, at the andragogical end of the spectrum, have grown from the status of dependent learners, at the pedagogical end of the spectrum. The function of adult educators, the learning situation, and any other elements involved are all to be directed to aiding the learner as he or she moves along the spectrum.

The universe sketched above is the source of many problems. How is one to determine the current status of the learner on each of the levels of the spectrum? How can the learner be best aided in moving toward the time when content acquisition allows more self-directed activity? How can one assist a learner to develop as a self-directed learner who is able to undertake learning independently when the level of content acquisition permits?

Andragogy seems, then, to present a framework within which adult education workers can view their practice. It provides a universe's population with which these workers concern themselves. Certainly, it presents numerous problems which must be solved. In addition, it presents parameters which must inform all attempts at solution. All solutions, even those which dictate the use of direct instructional techniques appropriate to dependent learners, must respect the autonomy of the learner and still assist the learner to move toward self-directedness in learning.

It would appear that paradigmatic elements are present in andragogy. It seems to serve as a paradigm for humanistic workers in the field of adult education. In what way can andragogy assist researchers who are interested in developing a cumulative body of information about the field?

Toward Cumulative Research

As noted above, adult education workers are not alone in their interest in the field. There are researchers, witness the present assembly, who are vitally interested in the field also. There is, as was also noted above, no single framework within which these researchers can view their work. The field of adult education research is in the earliest stages of the pre-paradigm period.

We researchers must find those elements which will encourage cumulative research somewhere. Is it not possible that it is in the elements of a practitioner's paradigm that we will find support and direction for some cumulative research? Andragogy, as an early integrated theory, seems to provide such support and direction for those researchers who find themselves interested in investigating its humanistic view of and approach to adult education.

Certainly, its basic construct and the basic assumptions inherent in it provide a framework within which researchers can identify a list of problems which are of interest. The universe with which researchers can be involved is fairly well defined, and the behaviors of the various entities in that universe have been delineated. The list of problems can include some of the questions raised earlier in this paper, for example. Even the nature of research methodology is suggested in the humanistic view of the subjects of the research. This observation is strengthened by the fact that Knowles, in another place (Knowles, 1973) suggests that purely empirical research is not appropriate in adult education.

It is not being suggested that research in adult education be limited to only those issues suggested by andragogical concerns. Rather, it is suggested that those who are interested in examining approaches to adult education other than the one represented by andragogy begin to follow a process which appears to have potential to assist in the development of cumulative research. Kuhn's paradigmatic theory of research community development seems to have potential for use in such a process. In the absence of a paradigm ascribed to by all researchers in adult education, is it not possible to undertake to find the paradigms represented by adult education workers and elaborate their elements? Once delineated, can the concerns which arise from under their paradigms be investigated?

It may be that it will not be possible for one paradigm to emerge which will undergrid the efforts of all researchers in the field of adult education. It does appear to be possible to begin to do research which will be cumulative at least to a degree more than is now present in our field.

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The Heroine's Journey: An Analysis of Perspective Transformation and the Life Experiences of Women Adult Educators

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> In the middle of the journey of our life
> I found myself within a dark forest
> where the straight way was lost
> Ah, how hard a thing it is to tell of
> that savage and harsh and dense forest
> the thought of which arouses my fear
> so bitter is it that death is hardly more so
> Dante, the beginning of The Divine Comedy

Research Problem: Mezirow's theory of perspective transformation (1975, 1978) describes a unique dimension of adult learning. A transformation in meaning perspective is precipitated by life situations that cannot be resolved by merely adding a new skill or competency. The learning processes involved in perspective transformation are different than those involved in meaning formation. To date, there has been limited research in examining this theory of adult learning.

Furthermore, it is clear that women have been missing as research subjects at the formative stages of much of our psychological theories (Gilligan, 1979). Developmental theory has established men's experience and competence as a baseline against which both men's and women's development is then judged, often to the detriment or misreading of women (Belenky, Clinchy and Goldberger, 1986). Because the developmental experience of men has been powerfully articulated, this research will focus on women.

The purpose of this research is to examine the process of perspective transformation by soliciting women's reflections, descriptions and experiences of transformation. In other words, a better understanding of women's experience may permit, even force, a far-reaching revision of the broader field of adult education.

DATA COLLECTION: In January, 1988, I approached ten of my female classmates in the graduate department of adult education at the University of British Columbia. I asked them if they would consent to discussing their experiences of perspective transformation and having one-hour sessions tape recorded. All of the women I approached agreed to be a part of my research. Three of the women are in the doctoral program and seven are in the masters program. Their ages range from 30-43 and all are Canadian. Two of them are in their first year of coursework and eight of them are in the second year or third year.

Each interview was at least one-hour long, although some of the sessions lasted longer. I kept field notes on the non-taped discussions, interviews, and other conversations I had on perspective transformation with women adult educators. To maintain confidentiality, I have given the participants pseudonyms. Some of the questions I asked included: How would you describe perspective transformation? What has facilitated, inhibited, reinforced transformation? Where are you now in this process? Do you see any patterns to your growth? How do you see yourself changing in the future? How has education helped or hindered this process?

This research is in process. I have proposed to meet again with these ten women in June, six months after the initial interviews. I am also planning, as part of my doctoral research, to interview adult education faculty members on their perceptions of the process of transformation.

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS: Rich (in Diaz-Diocaretz, 1984) states that women need to "re-vision", which she defines as the act of looking back, of seeing with fresh eyes, of entering an old text from a new critical direction. Rich believes that for women, this is an act of survival. I am humbled by the task that I have at hand, to re-vision women's story. Native American Indians refer to the "soul catcher" as one who has received and recorded the dreams and visions for another. To be a soul catcher is a great privilege, and it is a position of honor.

What strikes me most in my interview analysis is that the women, myself included, relate experiences of perspective transformation through the use of metaphor and symbol. Symbolic themes that emerge are the journey, the path, the removal of the veil, the bridge, the self as child, the self as flower, the spiral, death and rebirth, snakes, dragons, water and the animus. In this particular paper I will focus on the theme of death and rebirth, and the descriptions of perspective transformation as paradox.

Women refer to the process of transformation as one of death and rebirth. Transformation is described as "death", "dying", "a crucifixion", "the black hole". Some notes from the interview that reference to death are:

> "It's a dying and a going through hell before there is a rebirth". (Kate)
>
> "It's too bad that for a lot of people, we have to die before we are born. Too bad, in the sense that it's painful. It's a very painful time. It's like dying before you are born". (Kate)

We can see this theme in the many hero myths which present a paradigm of the development of the individual and the evolution of consciousness. The mythological fate of the hero, who is often a "sun-hero", symbolizing the rising and setting of the sun, may be regarded as a parallel of the archetypal development of the consciousness of the individual (Jacobi, 1965). The sinking into darkness, the evening, is the death, the sunrise the renewal or rebirth. Every "rebirth" is proceeded by a death. Whether it be Jonah in the Whale, Herakles in the Sun Vessel, Little Red Riding Hood in the wolf, or the Egyptian goddess, Nut, who devours the sun every evening and gives birth to it each morning, the process of transformation is pictured symbolically as a cyclical reoccurrence of death and rebirth (Jung, 1956).

A theme that runs deep in nature and in human history is that before the new can be born the old must be destroyed. A widespread mythological theme is that the king must die in order for the nation or tribe to be renewed. Initiation rites, from ancient times in most cultures, have entailed a form of ritual death before the entrance into a new life. This is given a spiritual theme in Christianity: expect to be born again and you will see God's kingdom. Mary, one of the woman I interviewed, reflects on the theme of crucifixion in her statement:

> "I think of transformation in terms of the crucifixion. The horizontal part of the human being has to in some way die and give way to the larger self that is connected not only to the earth but to what we think of as heaven".
>
> "I never think of transformation without thinking of both descent and ascent. It isn't necessarily linear. Somehow we are dust and ashes, not like dust and ashes, but we are dust and ashes and we must be". (Mary)

The reference here is that the death, the crucifixion, is essential for the life, enlightenment. For her growth and development, Mary clearly knows that she has to go through this death, this time of dust and ashes is essential for new life. The paradox inherent in this process is that birth is the death of the life we have known, and death is the birth of the life we have yet to live. So what is dying in this process? To quote from the interviews:

> "Somehow I believed I would never survive the change, or that the person I was would die. I would be this transformed person". (Natalie)
>
> "It's like a false front is being peeled away and of course, the fear is that there isn't anything underneath it. It's like I'm constructed and the materials of my construction are being taken away". (Kate)

Any basic change of psychic structure is naturally reacted to as a death-like, namely ego-threatening menace (Whitmont, 1969). This is evident in our resistance to any form of change in conditioned patterns. The fear of death which I found resonating through the transformation experience of some of the women is felt as the threat of "nothingness", and the annihilation of what to the limited life experience appears as the total personality. Something immense begins to happen in the very foundation of the personality, while consciousness experiences the conflict as crucifixion. The ego on some level knows that it is experiencing death.

> "I think of transformation in terms of Easter, spring, a rebirth, the eggshell cracking after winter". (Maddy)

In ancient Greece, the word for soul was psyche, often imaged as a butterfly. The emergence from the chrysalis is analogous to the birth of the soul from matter, a birth commonly identified with release. When caterpillars go into cocoons, they do not emerge as different caterpillars, some kind of high-class caterpillar. There is an agony that goes on inside the chrysalis. There is pain involved in the process of becoming the butterfly, for it means the death of the caterpillar, the old way of life.

Transformation is both radical and wrenching--the dissolving of the conditioned self-image is a process that is described as "brutal", "oppressive" and "painful". Some examples from the interviews:

> "This process has taken away layers, made me aware of layers that weren't authentically me. What has happened is that it has almost stripped me so that relating to you on a verbal level is awkward". (Irish)
>
> "I'm a different kind of warrior now. I wear less armor". (Anne)
>
> "Nothing refines like conflict. I have been ground down until the juices or blood or tears have run". (Mary)

> "Sometimes it doesn't feel so good when it's all stripped away. There are times when I feel like I am naked, when I feel vulnerable and very over-exposed". (Maddy)

Painful is the process of the mask being removed, the rigid character armor being dissolved. Clothes are removed and one feels naked and then has to deal with the emotional charge surrounding nakedness. Several references were made to the dissolution of the skin boundary:

> "What I think you must see when you look at me is nothing. There isn't even a dotted line around my face". (Kate)
>
> "It's just like every pore in my body is infiltrated with another person. I had to put something else on in order to present myself to the world". (Iris)
>
> "This has been a visceral experience. I literally have shed many layers of skin. I learned to appreciate snakes". (Maddy)

Symbolically, to slough the skin, as serpents do, is to put off the "old woman" and put on the new, to recover youth, immortality, to attain a higher state. Pharaohs and priests in ancient Egypt used to go through a ritual known as the passage through the skin which was used for rejuvenation and rebirth.

Pain is an axiom of the universality of suffering, which points to a basic view that all manifested existence, when clung to, carries its own limitations (Fox, 1983). Clinging produces an unsatisfactory condition which is labeled pain or dis-ease. Mezirow, from his observations of re-entry women, identifies that the process of perspective transformation begins with a "disorienting dilemma" (1981). I wonder why Mezirow's language is not more powerful when we are discussing death.

In the modern period of Western culture there has been a flight from fear of death and from pain. Pain is part of today's unmentionable reality that needs to be named for what it is. This pain is part of the growth of the human person, much of which takes place in the dark. Underground: the way down is the way up. Otto Rank (in Fox, 1983) sees a fear of death as the most basic characteristic of a patriarchial society.

Suffering is built into the birth process of the entire cosmos, it has accompanied all the birthings of the universe. Suffering which leads to birthing can be and is a blessing. The pain inherent in the process of transformation needs to be named, acknowledged. The pain needs to be entered into, not glorified or clung to, but walked through. Women know that in childbirth the pain is less if during the birthing process she is receptive and relaxed. There is less pain with expansion, not contraction.

Other references to the paradoxical nature of the process of transformation are the following:

> "I was helped to understand that this part of my journey was going to be really, really hard and that was perfect. Perfect and terrible". (Maddy)
>
> "I feel this sense of newness and this sense of loss". (Iris)
>
> "When you see so much suffering, you can move on. I am grateful for it. I am sorry my children had to suffer, but it has made me a different person and I am truly grateful". (Beth)

These statements reflect the cyclical, paradoxical nature of transformation, that the process is approachable and terrifying, perfect and terrible, that there is a death and a rebirth, and that without the death, the birth is not possible. I am profoundly moved with Mary's story that reflects this paradox:

> "I came across a drunk in the street not long ago and he was injured. I stopped to help him and he urinated all over me and got blood all over me and he was crying in the street. The ambulence came and he looked up at me crying and he said three times "thank you, miss". And that "thank you, miss" went straight into my heart and I grew as a person. At some level what I did for him touched him at a deep, deep level. His soul will remember just how he was loved for a moment perhaps. His whole drunkenness is transformation that is unrecognized and we give it a name and a category that doesn't look like that. Somewhere in his soul growth, the way down is the way up. The way down for each of us is the way up."

CONCLUSION:

A transformation is literally a restructuring, a forming over. Significantly, ancient traditions describe transformation as new seeing. This cleansing of the windows of perception results in a change in the shape of the world itself. Women's experiences of perspective transofmation are best captured and reflected by relating a symbolic journey. My re-vision of the heroine's journey is that we as women have a shared understanding of this process by the use of symbols. Transformation, as viewed by the heroine, is both radical and wrenching. It is a reunion with what has been lost in darkness. It is a process of suffering through the process of rebirth, and indeed, a never-again-the-sameness.

Mezirow (1978) states that there is no higher priority for adult educators than to develop its potentialities for perspective transformation. I agree. In the examination of this process, I encourage us as educators to take a brave look at this process, to courageously challenge each other to discover how we can assist our students and ourselves to revision learning as a way down leading to a way up. We can begin by reflecting on our own growth, our own journey. The I is transfigured as the eye is unveiled.

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THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL PARALLELS IN PORTFOLIO DEVELOPMENT

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Increasing numbers of colleges today are awarding credit through a system for evaluating the prior learning acquired by adults in experience. This system is applied to assess such experiential learning that cannot be evaluated by existing examinations for credit, credit recommendations for noncollegiate coursework, or any other established techniques for recognizing prior learning of adults. This system for appraising learning gained in experience is one of proven validity and special attractiveness to adult students (Strange, 1980).

By taking a regional look at assessment programs for prior knowledge, this paper offer an analysis of a variety of methods used in evaluating and documenting college-level knowledge acquired experientially. Although each program may appear to differ in its administrative design, the final analysis would indicate that the administrative procedure of the program is the only regional difference. The theoretical structure is consistent in its demands for academic legitimacy. The seven programs in the sample represent numerous other assessment programs offered by accredited American colleges and universities. Each program is analyzed in terms of evaluation methodology and quality control. The administrative aspects may be found within the bibliographical data.

Guidelines regarding the conduct of assessment were delineated by Keeton (1976) and emphasize stipulations which govern the design, promotion, and evaluation of experiential learning programs. Briefly, the stipulations constitute a pattern such as the following.

1. Select or design an assessment tool based upon specific needs, standards and assessors.
2. Distinguish among methods of documentation of experience, techniques designed to measure learning results, and communicative devices, i.e., portfolios, narratives, and/or interviews.
3. Use a variety of assessors and measurement techniques to enhance credibility of the assessment process.
4. Continuously test, analyze, and refine the production and management systems utilized for portfolios and narratives.
5. Develop assessor training workshops paralleled with select materials to support learning outcomes.

In addition to the "absolutes," frequent student-to-assessor contact and individualized pacing throughout the assessment are recommended; and student-training workshops to clarify and improve a student's ability to carry out the assessment process are highly desirable. Institutional preparation and distribution of portfolio/narrative rationale to all interested individuals can reduce misunderstandings, and review panels serving as reactors to proposed portfolios/narratives can aid in determining transcript needs and clarifying misunderstandings. A systematic and continuous exchange of information about recent practices and research of assessment tools should take place among institutions that engage in assessment of experiential learning (Keeton, 1976).

Data from each of the seven institutions in the sample contribute to the formulation of a set of common practices and procedures. Generally, the categories of methodology, documentation, and quality assurance constitute the complete set.

Candidates for experiential learning credit are typically furnished with a handbook which outlines the sequence for identifying, organizing, defining, and documenting prior learning. In many cases, an application form accompanies the handbook. At Central Michigan University, for example, a color-coded packet is designed to arrange credentials in three categories: learning from work experience, learning from training experience, and other experiences such as civic, volunteer, and hobby (Central Michigan University, 1981).

A suggested list of documentation is often provided, which may be augmented by other appropriate forms of verification. This list includes letters from employers or supervisors, any type of certificate or license, newspaper clippings, letters of reference or verification, tapes, resumes, books and periodicals read, products of work, papers and proposals, job descriptions, and official forms or records (promotions, civil service). Pertinent primary and secondary sources of validation, including certificates of award, job descriptions, and newsletter articles may be combined with test scores from independent agencies and proprietary associations in order to catalog evidence of prior knowledge.

The University of Alabama specifies that documents may be classified in four ways: (a) photographs or slides of actual products such as canvas, pottery, or machines; (b) copies of licenses, certificates, letters, or commendations; (c) letters of verification (not recommendation); and (d) newspaper clippings, photographs, annotated bibliography, papers and proposals, job descriptions and/or classifications, and official forms or records (University of Alabama, 1973). Not only does this classification scheme help to distinguish primary from secondary sources of validation, it also provides a means for illustrating accomplishments in the arts and technology.

Quality assurance is commonly determined by maintaining three major criteria: (a) clarity and appropriateness of evidence; (b) emphasis on balanced relationships between theory and practice; and (c) concentration upon single subjects (University of Minnesota, 1980). Most institutions will enforce the attainment of quality assurance by requiring that student candidates attend evaluation and portfolio preparation courses to master skills necessary for meeting portfolio development deadlines.

As a corollary to the student candidate preparation, faculty development programs have been instituted as well. Faculty development prepares staff to represent a broad range of disciplines, evaluating the claims of a candidate on the basis of directness, authenticity, breadth of learning, and mastery (Thomas A. Edison State College, 1981. Faculty teams review documentary evidence after being thoroughly trained in techniques of observation, product assessment, oral interview, and performance examination (Birmingham-Southern College, 1979). A trained team of Central Michigan University faculty members, for instance, assumes responsibility for the valuation of a single portfolio (Central Michigan University, 1981).

The theoretical foundation of a strong portfolio is represented by the introduction of identified and articulated professional credentials assembled for review. Depicted next in a four-tiered hypothetical construct is a series of component blocks illustrating progress toward the documentation of a candidate's experience. Each component of documentation consists of pertinent information related to the claim of professional competency. In its entirety, this level of the theoretical model provides an extensive narrative which leads to a thorough series of measurements and evaluations.

Tiers of measurement and evaluation take on a narrowing appearance in the building block model. As the preparation and presentation of the portfolio progresses, the focus is on special standardized outcomes. These outcomes are validated when the candidate successfully demonstrates an ability to perform a complete array of pedagogical competencies. Each competency is individually evaluated until the full array has been judged to attain a satisfactory level of professional performance. Ultimately, the competencies become an officially recognized collegiate outcome in the form of a transcript.

Portfolio review is the pinnacle of the theoretical model. Having prepared an entire profile of his/her professional, voluntary, and academic educational achievements, the candidate can confidently present the portfolio for review by either instructional supervisors or employment personnel. In the former instance, the portfolio will speak for advancement in rank; in the latter instance, it will speak for initial placement. In either case, the complete portfolio will offer a most attractive assembly of credentials to the potential employer.

The theoretical model describes only the range of processes that occur when a portfolio is prepared and presented. These processes are generic; that is, they might apply to any number of academic disciplines. A practical model, by contrast, displays the actual functions that are completed within the generic processes of each block.

An examination of a practical model in teacher education parallels the presentation of the theoretical model. By identifying actual practices and procedures, the candidate constructs a vivid representation of credentials. Specific processes inherent to this construction are subsumed within each of the generic processes of the theoretical model.

An introductory stage of portfolio presentation , identification and evaluation, informs the examiner of career goals, specific objectives, and personal expectations held by the candidate and portrayed in the portfolio. It provides the examiner with a professional self-portrait that can be supplemented with interpretations from the candidate during personal interviews.

Official certificates verify the satisfactory completion of non-collegiate educational and professional training programs. They include the documentation of such activities as public school paraprofessional, county intermediate unit workshops, and local school system mini-sessions. Official certification establishes a strong relationship between competencies claimed and credits approved.

A professional autobiography chronicles the sequence of experiences cited by the candidate for the purpose of demonstrating continued growth in pedagogical expertise. The autobiography offers personal data, narrates the evolution of career and life plans, and evokes an individual philosophy of education. Letters of recommendation highlight the statements of claimed competence in the professional autobiography. References that characterize teaching skills and potential, written by authorities such as local school district administrators, will especially enhance the value of earlier stated claims.

Baseline data which complete the documentation are derived from a chronology of involvement in civic and community activities. An illustrative profile can be drawn as the candidate enumerates the scope and depth of participation in organized youth recreation programs, school district boards of education, home and school associations, concerned citizen groups, and camp or scout organizations. Particular attention should be paid to leadership roles played by the candidate in any of these activities.

Clinical analyses conducted by collegiate and/or professional supervisory personnel determine the full range of strategies and techniques mastered by the candidate. Competencies in classroom management, group process, evaluation methodology, and subject-matter presentation are included in this component. The procedure for eliciting the bases for claims to competence emanates from the cycle of clinical supervision described by Goldhammer (1969). Through classroom observations, the assumptions derived from clinical analyses are directly validated. Specific behavioral outcomes are associated with teaching practices, communication skills, and subject-matter knowledge.

Primary source evidence bolsters the claim for continued interest in scholarly professional achievement. Such documented evidence as publications in professional journals, presentations at local or regional conventions of educators, and attendance at national educational conferences offers data that enhance the relative value of the candidate. Pedagogical materials represent creative works produced by the candidate. These can appear in the form of diagnostic measurement tools, mastery evaluation instruments, graphic teaching aids, or self-paced learning devices. A wide array of primary source materials would suggest a thorough synthesis of competencies by the candidate. The process of evaluation is now complete.

Transcripts from the office of the registrar culminate the academic stage of the process in preparing a portfolio for review. Credits that are awarded reflect the relationship between competencies claimed and outcomes desired. The transcript validates the relationship.

Portfolio review represents the final act of earning credit. The total document chronicles experiences and accomplishments for the purpose of presenting a candidate whose credentials convey an image of superior talents and capabilities.

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A HISTORY OF ADVOCACY ON BEHALF OF ADULT EDUCATION IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

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Who cares about adult education? Taken in its more colloquial, somewhat negative meaning, this question may not be very helpful, but if the question is examined seriously, the answer can tell us quite a lot about the nature of the field and its relationship to other elements in society. This paper is based on an attempt to study advocacy on behalf of adult education in British Columbia from the founding of the province to the present time. The details of that history have been examined--and are being published elsewhere--but limitations of space here preclude even a summary of that history. What follows is a brief discussion and interpretation of that more detailed study.

The Colony of British Columbia joined Canadian Confederation in 1871 and we have evidence that in that very first year of the province's existence, efforts by members of the Mechanics Institute in the provincial capital led to the passage of An Act Respecting Literary Societies and Mechanics Institutes. At the present time, we are awaiting in B.C. the report of a Royal Commission on Education, to which a number of individuals and organizations have made submissions about adult education. It is therefore a span of some 117 years which has been covered by this research. While it is possible to see encouraging signs of progress at various points in the story--progress in the development of public and institutional policy concerning adult education--it is sobering to note that the present provincial government has all but shut down its administrative unit responsible for adult education, and that the present Royal Commission on Education did not have adult education included in its initial terms of reference. Must we conclude, then, that advocacy on behalf of the field has ultimately been a failure? Or is it that the battle won't stay won, that it has to be re-fought with each change in government, and in the aftermath of every major shift in economic conditions? If even the latter is true, adult education has a long way to go.

As would be expected, an examination of advocacy on behalf of adult education over the years reveals that various forces were at work. The predominant phenomenon of recent decades has been the efforts on the part of professional or career adult educators, and their associations, to persuade government to accord higher priority to adult education. This has included requests for greater visibility within government structures, stronger leadership from government, declarations of government policy, increased resources of various kinds for the field, and increased attention to the needs of particular groups.

Another, perhaps surprisingly substantial element in advocacy has been the efforts of government and the Ministry to influence the behavior of the public educational system, and of adult educators themselves. As early as 1877, the Chief Superintendent pointed out to school boards the value of night schools; in the thirties, the Department of Education forged partnerships with the voluntary sector, encouraged local boards to do more for the unemployed, and became involved directly in the delivery of courses and the formation of study groups at the local level. For a few years beginning in 1976, Department/Ministry officials were involved in a sustained effort to expand and otherwise affect the character of the adult education services provided by the public educational institutions in the province. The Ministry--or a portion of it--was also involved in fostering community support for an expanded and improved adult education service.

It has also been seen that especially in the period before there were provincially-based organizations of adult educators, other interested parties were working on behalf of the field. Local school boards and the provincial

School Trustees Association lobbied for the right for local school authorities to become involved in the field. Librarians, mainly through the Public Library Commission,argued eloquently for an expanded and better co-ordinated adult education enterprise. And on at least one occasion, organized labor and associated groups spoke up for the field.

On what grounds were the various parties making the case for adult education? It was largely the two familiar ones--benefits for the individuals and benefits for society as a whole. It was pointed out repeatedly in the briefs examined that individual learners would benefit from adult education in their vocational and social roles, and in terms of their self-development as persons. From society's point of view, there were said to be benefits in the form of a more highly skilled work force and a better-informed citizenry. In recent years particularly, the concept of lifelong learning was frequently proferred as the desirable master planning concept.

The measures or actions which were promoted through these advocacy efforts have varied, of course, from one period to another, and depending on the interests which were being defended or advanced. One line of argument--and this was quite prominent in the early period--was the need for society, through government, to provide leadership and co-ordination of adult education services. This latter point was expressed particularly clearly during the 1930s and through to the immediate post-war period. It was perhaps a product of Depression and wartime thinking, times when government was looked to for strong, "remedial" leadership.

As a more professional spirit emerged in the field, the picture changed. In the buoyant period of the late fifties to the early seventies, those who were in charge of institutional programs tended increasingly to take the view, "Give us the tools and we will do the job". They argued for increased resources to be made available by government, but were no longer always arguing for strong and co-ordinated leadership from that quarter. Two factors were especially significant in this connection. When the college system began to develop in the mid-sixties, and especially after the government attempted to shift the responsibility for adult education from the school boards to the colleges, a substantial portion of the professional manpower in the field began to take a jaundiced view of the leadership coming from government. By the time of the public inquiry into government policy, in 1976 (the "Faris Committee"), opinion in the field was very divided. Submissions coming from many community organizations and from some institutions continued to call for strong leadership from government, Others, most notably those in the school board sector, but also some voices from the community and other professional sectors, were arguing for more funding, but less "control" from government. This arose in some cases from a distaste for government's apparent favoring of the colleges as deliverers of programs and in other cases from those who felt that government should route more of its adult education funds to the private sector.

The other major factor in the situation related to the character and direction of government leadership. The school board-based adult education enterprise in the province, which had flourished for almost two decades--the mid-fifties to the early seventies-- was the outstanding one of its kind in Canada and had built up a considerable head of steam and confidence in its own ability. The Directors of these programs were on the whole successful "educational entrepreneurs", who felt they knew the needs of their communities and who were accustomed to being left alone to do their jobs, within budgetary limits. When the NDP government came to power in 1972, fresh winds began to blow, and when first the College Task Force report of 1974 seemed to favor the colleges over the school boards, and then Dr. Ron Faris (who was known to have the same views) became Executive Director of the new Continuing Education Division in 1977, these forces had to be taken seriously. Although Faris's social democratic views were not by any means representative of those of the Social Credit government under which he was operating, he was accorded considerable freedom by his Minister and his progressive Deputy. Faris was generally critical of the adult education programs in the province, largely for what they were not doing rather than what they were doing. He felt the institutions were not trying hard enough to meet the needs of disadvantaged persons in their communities. By various means, he and his colleagues set out to shift the priorities of adult education in the school board and college systems. In a significant number of cases, this "interference" with local adult education programs was resented. So that by the late seventies, there were mixed signals incorporated into advocacy efforts.

The case was consistently made over the years for government to affirm and give increased prominence to its responsibilities in the field of adult education. The most frequently mentioned recommendation was that government should develop and state its policies for the field. As early as 1942, when the Public Library Commission conducted its survey of the field, its report called for a "Directing, Controlling, Co-ordinating, Unifying, Centralized Authority for the field, located in the Department of Education". It was also recommended by various parties that the government's commitment to adult education be placed "in statute". In other words, there was concern that what has since in fact happened to government's commitments to adult education, namely their drastic reduction, might happen; and it was felt that if government's commitment to the field was stated in law, there would be less likelihood of it subsequently being brushed aside.

One of the most interesting features of the story, especially in the period 1976 to 1982, was the role of officials within the public service in creating opportunities for advocacy to government and senior officials. The Continuing Education Division was painfully conscious at all times of the "marginality" of government's concern about adult education. Faris and his colleagues were therefore constantly looking for ways in which persons and agencies in the community could be encouraged to press their case for an increased or more effective government role in the field.

In the context of this study, the most significant characteristic of the field of adult education in British Columbia has been its failure to establish a political constituency for the field. In the last two decades particularly, there has been a great deal of advocacy activity within the system, but it has by and large consisted of the professional or career adult educators engaging in dialogue with the ministries of government. In the decades before the organizations of adult educators came into being, whatever efforts were made had to come from elsewhere. When the first provincial organization devoted to adult education was formed in 1954, and for about a decade thereafter, the leaders of a number of voluntary associations--the YM and YWCA, the Council of Women, the Women's Institutes, the Parent-Teacher Federation, etc.--were prominent in the affairs of the organization. But with increased professionalization and a change in the nature of the provincial adult education organization in the early sixties, it is clear that adult educators neglected their links with the voluntary sector and tended to narrow their interests and to draw in upon themselves and their institutions. This had the unfortunate effect of narrowing the circle of those who felt themselves to be involved in the welfare of adult education.

Interestingly, it was in the Continuing Education Division of the Ministry that there appeared to be the clearest realization of what was happening. One can see many of the initiatives of the Division after 1976 as directed towards the goal of involving elements of the community in shaping the field. The most obvious attempt to include such other parties was the strategy employed in organizing the three Lifelong Learning Conferences of 1979-82. Organized directly by one of the provincial professional organizations, but according to strategies developed by Faris and his Division, this venture involved several other groups, such as the school trustees, college council members and college teachers. It is significant that these initiatives have not been followed up since the Ministry has ceased to provide leadership in the venture, but it was its early success that appeared to lead to the Ministry's decision to launch the policy development process undertaken in the early eighties. The situation in this province contrastssharply with that of Alberta and Saskatchewan, where by means of the Further Education Councils and the community contact committees, a variety of community organizations come to feel involved in the development and welfare of adult education services. But in B.C., although we have had a vigorous adult education sector in terms of programs offered, the numbers of institutions and persons professionally engaged in adult education, and the number of students taking courses, we have not been successful in building a political constituency for adult education. In lean years such as the present period, when government has deliberately and avowedly abandoned a leadership role in the field, it has not been possible to mount a persuasive advocacy effort in the interest of adult learners in the province.

It would appear that organized adult education has been largely ineffective in its advocacy activities. It would be difficult to identify any single issue on which advocacy from the field has made an important difference. Calls for strong, co-ordinated leadership by government which were made in the forties brought no discernible response. During the period of rapid growth and development from the mid-fifties to the early seventies--a time of increasing professionalization and institutionalization--much of the advocacy originated with the growing number of professional bodies in the field, and with the possible exception of some adjustment in the provision for high school completion programs for adults, appeals for change were largely ignored. Submissions from the field, some of them very substantial and carefully reasoned, were often barely acknowledged and requests for meetings with Ministers or senior officials were more often than not rebuffed.

With the coming to power of the NDP administration in 1972 and through the years of the Social Credit governments which have succeeded it (at least up to 1982) there were at the helm ministers or other officials with agendas of their own for the field of adult education. The field was catapulted from a period in which there was little sense of direction for government's role in the field to one in which government had a clear sense of where it wanted to go and did not wish to be diverted or distracted. In the NDP years, there was readiness to change but a singleminded concentration on the further development of the college and institute system. After 1976, under the leadership of Faris and other senior officials, there were lines of development firmly held to by these leaders. They overwhelmed the system with initiative, orchestrating expressions of opinion from the community as it suited their purposes.

But events since 1982 have made it clear that advocacy on behalf of adult education has next to no impact in the political arena. In the last five years, the government has publically announced that it no longer intended to play a leadership role in this field. It has totally dismantled the Continuing Education Division of the Ministry. The volume of advocacy activity on behalf of adult education has slowed to a trickle in this period, it generally being felt that "no one was listening". To their credit, several of the associations of adult educators have sent out exploratory probes from time to time to see whether the wind had changed, and when, as in the case of literacy education, there have been grounds for encouragement, efforts have been renewed. Generally, however, the improvements which appeared to have been made during the seventies in government's acceptance of responsibility for leadership and support for adult education have proven to be illusory, or at best, short term. Efforts mounted by the field of adult education to dissuade government from its retreat from leadership in this field have been unsuccessful.

That government felt it was politically safe in abandoning the many constructive initiatives it had taken concerning adult education between 1976 and 1982, and that this conclusion has so clearly been justified, is ample evidence of the political impotence of the field. According to the most recent study of adult education participation in Canada, One in Every Five, more than a fifth of all adults in British Columbia take part in organized adult education each year. Those 405,000 or more citizens of the province would appear to be a political base of major importance. But the field is very diverse and there is no sense of common purpose among adult participants.

It is difficult to envisage any circumstances under which adult education, as such, can become a potent political force. Adult education is not central enough to the lives of most of its participants to command their political support. The key to strong advocacy and political clout for the field lies surely in its allying itself more strongly with those forces and social movements in our society which do command the loyalty and support of their adherents. There is still an important role for those engaged professionally in the field of adult education and lifelong learning to place a vision of what is possible before the community. Ideas and professional expertise have their own kind of impact. But the basic political task of influencing social policy will be achieved not by small groups of practitioners, but by substantial interest groups in the society who come to see adult learning as a key to reaching their goals.

Adult education has its opponents as well as its friends in our society and the cause must be promoted with intelligence and vigor--and with the help of major social movements which have the loyalty of large numbers of our fellow citizens.

The full details of this study are being published in the spring of 1988 by the Pacific Association for Continuing Education (PACE), under the editorship of Mr. Jindra Kulich. The author would be pleased to provide a list of references and sources to anyone wishing that information.

LA SCIENCE-ACTION ET L'EDUCATION DES ADULTES
(a bilingual communication)

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The idea of professional knowledge

Marie Rolland-Barker

The question of the professionalization of adult education and the closely related issue of the professional education and certification of adult educators have generated some of the most vigorous arguments in the repertoire of adult educational debates (e.g. Cameron, 1981; James, 1981). While competing views concerning this aspect of adult education cohabit uneasily, the existing professions are in the midst of a crisis of confidence and legitimacy as the professionals' claim to special knowledge and competence is being brought into serious question (Schön, 1983).

At stake in the crisis of confidence in the professions and, by extension, in the occupational categories that allege some expertise in a given domain, is the question of professional knowledge and the understanding of its changing character and features. In other words, what kind of knowledge and/or forms of knowing are we referring to when we are speaking of "professional knowledge"? What knowledge do professionals possess and ought to possess in order to carry on successfully their practice?

The knowledge component of professionalism, or the idea of professional knowledge, is central in studies concerned with professions, as either a distinctive attribute or as a criterion that serves to evaluate, along some continuum, the degree of professionalism reached by an occupation. This dominant view, referred to by Schön (1983) as the model of "Technical Rationality", is institutionalized in professional schools within the university and basically describes professional knowledge as specialized and esoteric, scientifically and theoretically based, applied and practical - in the sense of means to the ends of practice. As Schön puts it, in this model, professional knowledge is viewed as "the application of scientific theory and technique to the instrumental problems of practice" (p.30). Embedded in these properties, is a hierarchical relationship amongst them, based fundamentally upon the separation established between theory and practice. In the dominant model, professional knowledge remains almost exclusively treated in terms of what it is professionals are supposed to know in order to practice, rather than in terms of what it is that professionals actually know, what knowledge professionals possess, engage in and display in their practice.

Schön (1983) effects an important shift within the discourse about professional knowledge, as he stretches the conceptual boundaries established by the "Technical Rationality" model in addressing knowledge from 'inside' the experience of practice, within the broader perspective of the relation that exists between thought and action. In other words, Schön chooses to examine closely what it is that professional practitioners do in order to find out and then construct what it is that they actually know.

However, accounting for knowledge in practice does not preclude knowledge for practice, or vice-versa, as they represent the two facets in our understanding of how professional practitioners know; for, the question as to how one knows encompasses both the question of how one has "come to know" and the question of how one "can tell", the first being concerned with earlier experiences and the second, with circumstances of the current case.

As the discourse connecting professions and knowledge moves forward, new patterns of relations are being determined in the treatment of what seems to be, increasingly, the idea of "practical knowledge" rather than the one of professional knowledge. This shift gives rise to a number of questions which require closer examination, as, for instance, the notion of practice and the nature of its relationship to knowledge and professional education.

Compétence professionnelle et savoirs tacites

Madeleine Blais

Cette partie de notre communication se propose de vous entretenir de formation professionnelle en utilisant comme cadre conceptuel la théorie de la science action. Dans un premier temps, nous examinerons les éléments qui constituent la compétence professionnelle. Puis, nous réfléchirons sur les savoirs professionnels c'est-à-dire les savoirs théoriques, les savoirs d'expérience et les savoirs tacites. Nous insisterons sur l'importance de ces derniers pour une action compétente et efficace. Nous terminerons en identifiant quelques outils ou expériences qui peuvent faire émerger les savoirs tacites.

Un des objectifs de la formation professionnelle, quel que soit le lieu où elle est offerte, est habituellement de permettre aux personnes d'acquérir ou d'améliorer leur compétence en regard d'une activité de travail donnée. La compétence, au sens du dictionnaire, est d'abord l'art, la capacité, la qualité qu'a une personne. Avec le temps, le concept a évolué et on a ajouté la connaissance comme élément important de la capacité d'une personne à bien assumer un rôle donné. Avoir de la compétence c'est savoir comment faire une chose, c'est posséder les aptitudes pour réaliser une performance donnée. Klemp (1979) décrit la compétence comme étant des connaissances, des habiletés, des traits et une motivation; tous sont reliés - par des liens causals - à des comportements pour lesquels on a déterminé des

critères de performance, et il explique: les connaissances sont des informations organisées autour d'un contenu spécifique. Les habiletés sont la capacité de démontrer un ensemble de comportements ou de processus, par exemple l'écoute active. Les traits sont des dispositions ou des façons caractéristiques de répondre à des stimuli équivalents, exemple: l'initiative. La motivation est une condition qui stimule, oriente dirige le comportement de l'individu. La compétence est généralement déterminée par l'habileté de la personne à réaliser une tâche particulière (p. 42), elle est un attribut de la personne qui est en action dans une situation, un contexte environnemental spécifique.

La compétence ne peut être déterminée par la seule description des fonctions ou tâches d'un emploi ou d'une profession. On a souvent eu, et on a encore tendance à déterminer les connaissances et habiletés requises à partir des descriptions d'emploi. Ce moyen peut aider à identifier certaines des compétences requises cependant il ne peut être utilisé pour reconnaître la compétence de la personne qui doit accomplir la tâche ou qui doit assumer l'emploi. De plus, la description d'emploi qui est ce que certains chercheurs ont appelé le travail prescrit , ne représente qu'une partie des compétences requises pour un travail effectif. Il existe une différence importante entre travail prescrit et travail effectif et ne pas la prendre en compte dans les programmes de formation mène à une contestation de l'à propos de ceux-ci (Troussier et Rosanvallon, 1983).

Schön (1983) note que dans les actions de tous les jours, nous démontrons que nous 'savons'. Souvent nous ne pouvons dire ce que nous savons, et lorsque nous tentons de décrire ce savoir, nous n'y arrivons pas. Ce savoir est tacite, implicite à notre manière d'agir. Ce phénomène du savoir tacite a été exploré avec beaucoup de soin par Polanyi (1958, 1969). Schön saisit cette réalité comme étant partie intégrante du savoir professionnel, c'est le savoir-dans-l'action. Le savoir théorique enseigné dans les programmes de formation formelle serait une partie du savoir nécessaire pour une pratique professionnelle compétente. Le savoir tacite ou savoir-dans-l'action est une autre composante de la compétence professionnelle. Ce type de savoir agit , le plus souvent, à l'insu du praticien cependant, il est possible de le faire émerger par la réflexion-sur-l'action.

Ce modèle d'intervention, la réflexion-sur-l'action, développé par Argyris et Schön (1974, 1978) présente un intérêt certain notamment pour ceux et celles dont le travail consiste à aider les professionnels à améliorer leur compétence, à devenir plus efficaces. Il présente aussi un intérêt dans la perspective où il est important de faire émerger les acquis constitués à la faveur des actions quotidiennes et qui demeurent tacites. Je pense entre autre à ces femmes qui ont travaillé à la maison et qui envisagent d'effectuer un retour sur le marché de l'emploi, ou encore à ces travailleurs/travailleuses qui ont perdu leur emploi à la suite d'une fermeture d'usines et qui ont besoin d'être aidés pour expliciter, nommer ces savoirs acquis dans l'action.

Schõn et la Programmation neuro linguistique
Schõn and Neuro Linguistic Programm

Fernand Serre

Schön a analysé dans ses récents livres (1983, 1987) la relation d'apprentissage qui s'établit entre le "coach" et l'apprenti. Il cherche à expliciter a "new design for teaching and learning in the professions."

Analysing different learning situations, Schön distinguishes two types of learning used by the practitioner:

- **reflexion-in-action**, which happens within the action.
  Exemple: quelqu'un qui frappe sur un clou vérifie continuellement si le clou entre droit et à la fin, s'assure que la tête du clou ne dépasse pas la surface de la planche.

- **reflexion-on-action**, qui survient lorsque quelqu'un sent le besoin de prendre une distance par rapport à son action pour mieux comprendre ce qu'il a fait. Someone stops his action and studies what he has done to find out the reasons of either his success or his failure.
  Exemple: quelqu'un n'arrivant pas à planter un clou, s'arrête et analyse la situation; il réfléchit sur son action, vérifie entre autre s'il n'y a pas un noeud dans la planche en vue de trouver la cause de son insuccès.

L'intervention du "coach" s'inscrit dans un processus d'aller-retour par lequel le practicien apprend. The coach's intervention according to Schön can be of three different types:

- **"joint experimentation"** (processus de recherche et de collaboration),
- **"follow me"** (le "coach" improvise une tâche et en la faisant attire l'attention sur certains aspects),
- **"hall of mirrors"** (reprise d'un geste, dialogue sur ce qui se passe).

Some complementary aspects can be added to these ways of learning that can improve the education of the reflective practitioner. En effet, il est possible de faciliter ces opérations en s'inspirant de la Programmation neuro linguistique. Selon cette dernière, les personnes favorisent des systèmes perceptuels et développent des représentations perceptuelles correspondantes.

On distingue selon cette approche trois types de systèmes perceptuels: visuel, auditif et kinesthésique. Someone understands reality better if the information is presented to her(him) according to his(her) dominant perceptual channel. Si l'information lui est présentée selon les trois systèmes, incluant son système dominant, l'apprentissage sera supérieur.

Notre présentation tentera d'inventorier les possibilités d'utiliser ces découvertes de la Programmation neuro linguistique comme autant de moyens facilitant le processus d'apprentissage "of the reflective practitioner". By incorporating the results of the Neuro Linguistic approach, we think that a new design for teaching and learning in the professions as proposed by Schön can be improved. Par ailleurs, nous tenons à ajouter en conclusion que cette présentation s'inscrit dans le "incompleteness theorem" de Schön.

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EVALUATING A TELEWRITER SYSTEM TO ENHANCE AUDIO-TELECONFERENCING: A QUALITATIVE SEARCH FOR INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN ISSUES

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Teleconferencing uses various forms of telecommunications technology to reduce the dependency on print material and mail delivery that is characteristic of correspondence education, the traditional form of distance education. While teleconferencing students may lose some of the independence they would have in correspondence study, they gain the advantage of being able to interact immediately with a teacher and with fellow students.

From the educational institution's point of view, the success of audio teleconferencing, the most common form of teleconferencing, is due to the range of instructional approaches it supports and the immediacy and quality of educational exchanges between teacher and students. In addition, audio teleconferencing has proven to be a cost-effective telecommunications technology (largely because it uses existing existing dial-up telephone lines). While audio communication support with print materials could be satisfactory for many courses, other courses require a visually interactive means of communication analogous to the blackboard in traditional classroom instruction.

The purpose of this paper is to describe an audio teleconferencing system enhanced with a microcomputer based telewriting system and to examine its effects on the delivery of an introductory course in Statistics offered by Athabasca University. The aim is to provide a greater recognition and understanding of enhanced audio teleconferencing as a distance delivery technology.

Telewriting-Enhanced Audio Teleconferencing

The viability and usefulness of audio teleconferencing is apparent from the significant number of institutions in Canada using this technology (Knowles, 1984). Currently in Alberta, the vast majority of colleges and universities are involved in teleconferencing. Alberta's unique audio teleconferencing system allows institutions to deliver courses to approximately 45 centres over toll-free lines.

These indications of success notwithstanding, audio teleconferencing has had a considerable period of gestation since the initial development of the technology in the early 1960's. While the strength of audio-teleconferencing is its two-way communication capability, clearly its most glaring and sometimes critical deficiency is an inability to support visual instructional interaction. At the present time the most versatile and cost-effective way to address this deficiency appears to be with a microcomputer based telewriting system.

The telewriting system used in the study reported here has the unique capability of supporting simultaneous aural and visual communication. The system uses a graphics tablet and keyboard on which the instructor can write or type a message which is transmitted immediately with audio communication along a single telephone line. At all of the centres in the system, students can receive handwritten text and/or typed text and/or graphic messages on a colour monitor. Each centre also has the capability of altering images that have been sent out, using a cursor (or pen) to point out features on these images, or creating and transmitting images themselves. All messages and images may be viewed simultaneously in all centres in real-time. In addition, the system is able to support the transmission of computer messages between teleconference sessions, computer-based learning, and computer graphics. With some additional hardware it could also support freeze-frame and other ancillary media.

The system used in the project is based on Optel Communications' Telewriter II - PC's using an IBM XT PC. The Optel hardware consists of a graphics tablet, software and a "Voice-Too" modem. The Voice-Too modem is the key feature that allows for the concurrent transmission of voice (at 300 baud) and data on one standard telephone line. There is a second, asynchronous modem (the IDEACOMM modem) internally installed in the microcomputer which may be used to download screen pages directly from centre to centre (at a 1200-2400 baud rate).

Using this system, instructors and students physically distant from one another have a unique opportunity to discuss and explain problems both aurally and visually - a process that closely simulates the conventional educational process.

The Project

The application of the telewriting system described here was a pilot project that directly involved Athabasca University (who provided the course, the students and the instructor) and The University of Calgary (who provided the telewriting system and technical support). The course delivered was AU's introductory course in statistics; initially, there were six sites in the telewriting system (the instructor was linked to these six through another site located at The University of Calgary); nineteen students started the course, with two centres serving only a single student each; another centre had two students; and the other three centres had about five students each. The major object of the project was to give the telewriting system, itself, a thorough test and to obtain some solid experience on how to use the technology effectively to support the instructional process.

The statistics course was designed as a home study course. The materials sent to students in the pilot project were identical to those used by home-study students. The home-study students are supported by a telephone tutor who they can call (collect) during the week (usually at a set time on one prescribed day). In the pilot project, primary support was intended to be via the telewriter system; however, the students were also given the opportunity to phone the instructor directly after each week's session, and on other occasions as well. Thirteen, 2-hour sessions were scheduled for the Fall term of 1987.

The instructor for the pilot project had experience supporting the statistics course by both telephone tutoring and audio-teleconferencing. As a consequence of this experience, the instructor was acutely aware that there were likely to be enormous differences among the students in the pilot project with respect to ability, math preparation and motivation. As a result of the teleconferencing experience, the instructor was aware that students typically came to sessions unprepared for the evening's content. To a large degree, this experience influenced many of the decisions made regarding the instructional design issues that were encountered. In addition, because the system was experimental considerable redundancy was built into the teleconference session just in case "something" went wrong.

Extensive use was made of prepared screens which were used just as one might use an overhead projector (for example, sequentially stepping through problems, presenting of information and formulae. It was also possible to annotate the prepared screens (for example, using the pen and pad one could manually fill in some of the numbers just to illustrate the detail of the computation, and then skip to the next screen which would have all the values neatly typed in place). The pen and pad were also invaluable in creating extemporaneous screens that elaborated on material presented orally - particularly when symbols and formulae were involved.

In any given session, the instructor had to coordinate himself, the telewriter screen (with prepared pages or as a blackboard), the course materials and, of course, the students. As a result, each session needed considerable planning and the instructor found it necessary to do some "scripting" and rehearsing.

With respect to course content (and its presentation), the telewriter was used: (1) to step through solutions to problems; (2) to present content in note-like, abbreviated form; and (3) to illustrate, visually, points of elaboration and to work through questions and problems spontaneously. The first two applications required advance preparation of screens which were stored on floppy disk and sent to the centres where they were down-loaded to the PC's. Creating these screens was quite time consuming. Consequently, they had to be prepared well in advance. This meant that the content and sequencing had to be fixed well in advance of the sessions. As a result, sessions were pre-scripted to a high degree.

The use of the pen and screen in chalk and blackboard fashion was relatively easy and a more nearly normal act. It was ideal for elaboration through visual illustration - and, in fact, indispensable for limited graphics and symbolic representations. However, there were some limitations here as well. In particular, the screen is quite a limited display area, and advanced preparation of pages (using the keyboard) enabled optimal use of the area; the alternative of using the pen in free-hand style reduced legibility and usually lead to a fragmentation of material over screens (a serious problem when you have to carry figures from one screen to the next; you almost have to write the numbers on paper before continuing. Also, with prepared screens, you can flip back and forth; you cannot do this easily with pen created screens). As a result, a lot of advance work on lesson planning and preparation is required to use the system effectively and efficiently.

To make all this work, the instructor needs to operate cognitively at two levels - the obvious one of dealing with the content and communicating with students, and the other dealing with the mechanics of how to use the pen and pad (and related matters around it, such as remembering not to lay the pen on the pad, and that students cannot see where you are pointing with the pen unless you switch to "point" mode, and so on).

Garrison (1985) points out that teleconferencing is a unique technology for supporting the distance delivery of education because it so closely emulates the usual real-time, two-way educational exchange between teacher and student(s). Capitalizing on this feature was a major instructional conundrum in this project. When the instructional situation is based on natural language and relies to a large extent on "general" knowledge topics, then it is usually possible to initiate a discussion in which everyone can participate at some level. With mathematical subject matter, however, discussion is more difficult: first of all, the material is mostly factual and inherently highly structured and not really amenable to discussion - consequently, communication is more likely to be of a question-answer nature. Second, all those party to a session must have acquired some familiarity and ease with the symbolic system used as the primary language of communication - as well as having a satisfactory understanding of the concepts underlying the symbol. For example, when a student sees the symbol "Σ" for the first time, they have no ready natural language term for it until they are told it is the Greek letter sigma; they then have no meaning to associate with the letter until they learn that the symbol means "sum up a set of numbers"; and until all students have this commonality of understanding, it is impossible to consider collectively computational formulae that use quantities like ΣX^2 or $(\Sigma Y)^2$, and so on. The more heterogeneous the group of students, the more severe the problem becomes - and this is particularly the case for the students of the pilot project (because there are no pre-requisites for the course, students vary enormously in their aptitudes and preparation). As a consequence, it was very difficult to initiate and maintain interactive exchanges - and perhaps this was partly why there turned out to be very little interaction in the course. Certainly, using the sessions for lecture style presentations exacerbated the problem of too much lecturing and too little student participation.

Results and Discussion

From an instructor/tutoring point of view, the telewriter system used in the project made supporting the delivery of the statistics course much easier and more convenient than was possible either by using only the telephone or only teleconferencing. In retrospect, instructionally it was a mistake to fall into the trap of lecturing during the sessions (and, again, this was done because students did not seem to come prepared for the evening's agenda; the great lengths of silence that ensued when the students were asked direct questions and when they were asked if they had any questions also did not promote two-way communication). Some lecturing lead to more lecturing and more apparent passivity among the students; and in addition this lead to psychological pressure to cover all the course material - this, in turn, resulted in a rate of pacing that students found difficult to keep up with. In spite of repeated invitations to students to ask questions and respond to specific inquiries, student interaction was minimal. This was a cause for concern to the instructor and one of the major sources of dissatisfaction among students.

When the students started the course, they were given a questionnaire that asked about their expectations regarding the course and the telewriter system. The students were also asked to respond to the same questions after the course was completed in an attempt to assess the extent to which student expectations were met. In the event, student response to the after-course questionnaires was so poor, the students were phoned and interviewed.

Nineteen students started the course, one of whom transferred to home study after completing the first two of the six assignments marked for credit. Of the remaining 18, all of them completed assignment 1, 17 completed assignment 2, 15 completed assignment 3, 15 wrote the mid-term exam (and 5 of the 15 failed on their first attempt; 2 re-wrote and passed; only one of those failing did not continue in the course and one of those passing also did not continue); 13 students continued after the first exam and all 13 completed all of the remaining 3 assignments. To date, 10 students have written the final exam 2 of whom failed; thus 8 students of the 18 starters (44%) have completed the course satisfactorily. However, 3 other students are in a position to write, 2 of whom can reasonably be expected to pass (10 out of 18 is 56%). If we exclude the three students who quit the course before getting half way through, then we can calculate the completion rate as 10 out of 15 (67%).

There were a number of technical problems with the telewriter system. For the first couple of sessions, the problems were largely associated with making the telewriters function properly. Subsequent problems had more to do with poor quality signal transmission. Technical problems were cited by all students as a major problem throughout the project. Instructionally, the majority of students were very dissatisfied with the lecture style of presentation and the rate of pacing required to "cover the course"; and they particularly questioned the reproduction of material given in the text and student manual (many felt they could progress as well reading the material themselves, at home, and to a large degree this would account for the substantial fall-off in attendance at the sessions; it should be emphasized that in this project, the students had available well-designed course materials - had this not been the case, they likely would have responded quite differently).

At the outset of the course, the students thought that the major advantages of studying statistics through the telewriter system would be: personal contact with an instructor; personal contact with other students; and pressure to keep up in the course (in that order of importance). Because of a lack of interaction in the sessions, at the end of the course the students did not feel they benefitted much in regard to personal contact with an instructor. It is worth noting also that the students rarely took advantage of repeated invitations to phone the instructor and discuss matters of concern to them. When asked why, most students replied they did not feel any need to. This is somewhat puzzling given their apparent dissatisfaction with the limited interaction in the sessions. Students also reported after the fact that there was limited student to student interactions (unlike what a number of them had experienced in other teleconference courses). This may be because study in mathematics is so structured that students must largely proceed in their own way and at their own pace. The students did confirm that regular classes and fixed assignment due dates helped them to work at the course on a regular basis and to complete it.

Many of the students did find the telewriter system helpful in some way - perhaps more than they may have realized and this may be why most students did not feel any need to use the phone sessions. However, over-all they did not seem to value the sessions very highly. This is in contrast to the favourable assessments made by eleven of the students in the project who had previously taken a course by teleconferencing. Moreover, the results stand in contrast to favourable reports of other telewriter experiences (Martin, 1986; Thompson, 1986; Maher, 1986). Interesting instructional questions arise as to why there is such a difference. An obvious possibility is that the result was confounded by negative reaction to the instructor and the associated instructional style, or by the technical problems experienced. Alternatively, it is possible that a different group of students might have reacted differently. Almost certainly, the nature of the subject matter had the strongest effect on both instructional design considerations and student attitudes. It is clear the students did not find much value in the lecture-style presentations used during the sessions (given that they had a good home-study package). However, question and answer interaction did not work too well either (because students were at so many levels of ability and understanding, because of the significant amount of time required to work through a problem collectively, and because of apparent student reluctance to participate). The question that seems to remain is: "Can a telewriting enhanced teleconferencing system play a more effective role in supporting mathematics based courses and, if so, what is an optimal instructional strategy?" Clearly, promoting two-way interaction is critical, or else there is little benefit to using two-way communication technology. Whatever one chose to do, it would be essential to provide students with sufficient information to temper the expectations they bring to the situation. At a minimum students need to be aware that despite many similarities, telewriting sessions are different in important ways from going to a traditional "class" - and they need to know that mathematics delivered through telewriting/teleconferencing will be a very different kind of experience then is possible with courses largely based on natural language and common knowledge.

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"NEED" IN ADULT EDUCATION: RESTORING THE LUSTER OF A TARNISHED CONCEPT

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Background

For at least thirty years the concept "need" has been used to justify adult education practice. The concept, and the associated process of needs assessment, is an integral part of literally every program planning model published since 1950 (Sork and Buskey, 1986). Yet the concept, or at least the way it is used in adult education, has been criticized from several perspectives. Griffith (1978) lamented the ambiguity of the concept which ". . . renders it useless in scholarly communication" (p. 383). Mattimore-Knudson (1983) proposed discarding the concept altogether because "Using the term 'need' is not productive; it can only add work where more work is unnecessary" (p. 119). Boshier (1986) concluded that "At a superficial level the preoccupation with learner needs may be socially correct and psychologically comfortable. But a critical examination of assumptions and practices underlying exhortations to satisfy needs, reveals that educators may be disabling learners by preparing them for a future that has already passed" (p. 15). Each of these critiques points out potential or actual weaknesses in the concept and its application in adult education, but these weaknesses are not necessarily fatal. Before discarding any concept that is so central to theory and practice, reasonable efforts should be made to propose formulations that may reduce or eliminate confusion and restore some of the luster to "need" that has been dulled by these and other critiques. One effort to do this involves analyzing the various uses of the term in the literature and developing categories to represent these uses. This paper reports the results of one effort to do this.

Defining "Need" in Adult Education

Before identifying variants of the concept of need, some effort must be made to clarify what the base concept represents. There has developed a reasonable consensus in the literature on how need should be defined, but there are many variations on how the general definition is operationalized. After one of the most extensive reviews of the literature completed to date, Witkin (1984) concluded that ". . . the term need is properly used only as a noun with the denotation of a discrepancy or gap between some desired or acceptable condition or state of affairs and the actual or observed or perceived condition or state of affairs" (p. 6). Similar definitions are found in Beatty (1981), Boone (1985), Boyle (1981), Kaufman (1987), Knowles (1980), and Leagans (1964), among others. But this consensus on the general definition has not solved the problems created by interpretations of the general definition. For example, Knowles (1980) defined an educational need as ". . . something people ought to learn for their own good, for the good of an organization, or for the good of society. It is the gap between their present level of competencies and a higher level required for effective performance as defined by themselves, their organization, or society" (p. 88). The first sentence of this definition refers to "something people ought to learn", implying that a need is equivalent to content, skills, or proficiencies. The second sentence declares that a need is a gap between present and required competencies. These two interpretations are very different—one is quite consistent with the gap or discrepancy definition, while the other is not.

Kaufman (1987) also employed the gap or discrepancy definition, but was only concerned with gaps in results. He emphasized results (ends) to avoid confusion with gaps in resources, methods, materials, or solutions (means).

Sork (1986) proposed an operational definition of need for use by program planners that was intended to reduce the ambiguity found in more general definitions. He defined need as "a statement (oral or written) which contains the following two essential elements: (1) a verifiable description of a performance, capability, or outcome which is thought to exist, and (2) a hypothetical description of, or set of specifications for, a parallel performance, capability, or outcome which might exist in the future and which is considered more desirable than (1)" (p. 262). Although consistent with the discrepancy definitions proposed by others, this definition contains many other concepts that are not self-explanatory and can therefore be interpreted in a variety of ways.

It seems clear that at a general level adult educators understand what is meant by "need" but additional work is required to develop a more specific and less ambiguous definition. Or it may be that several definitions of need will be required to account for the variety of meanings considered essential for developing theory and improving practice.

Variants of Need in the Adult Education Literature

In an attempt to clarify the concept by accounting for the myriad ways it is used, authors have developed categories of needs and labelled them with a bewildering variety of adjectives. Following is a listing of these labels with references to authors who have employed them: felt need (Atwood & Ellis, 1971; Boone, 1985; Boyle, 1981; Bradshaw, 1972; Brookfield, 1986; Grabowski, 1982; Houle, 1972; Leagans, 1964; McMahon, 1970; Monette, 1977; Tuomisto, 1981); unfelt need (Leagans, 1964; McMahon, 1970); real need (Atwood & Ellis, 1971; Grabowski, 1982; Monette, 1977); educational need (Atwood & Ellis, 1971; Knowles, 1980); learning need (Monette, 1977); perceived need (Grabowski, 1982); expressed need (Boyle, 1981; Bradshaw, 1972; Tuomisto, 1981); ascribed need (Grabowski 1982; Houle, 1972); prescribed or prescriptive need (Atwood & Ellis, 1972; Beatty, 1981; Brookfield, 1986); motivational need (Atwood & Ellis, 1971; Beatty, 1981); latent need (Tuomisto, 1981); manifest need (Tuomisto, 1981); symptomatic need (Atwood & Ellis, 1971); normative need (Boyle, 1981; Monette, 1977); comparative need (Boyle, 1981; Bradshaw, 1972; Monette, 1977); discrepancy need (Scissons, 1982); derived need (Scissons, 1982); individual need (Boshier, 1986; Knowles, 1980); organizational need (Boshier, 1986; Knowles, 1980); community need (Boshier, 1986; Knowles, 1980); societal need (Boshier, 1986); planetary need (Boshier, 1986); micro need (Boone, 1985; Boshier, 1986); macro need (Boone, 1985; Boshier, 1986); instrumental need (Londoner, 1978); expressive need (Londoner, 1978); sensed need (Kaufman, 1987); hard need (Kaufman, 1987); quasi-need (Kaufman, 1987). These variants of "need" and the definitions and discussion provided by the authors represent the data used in this analysis.

Analyses of the usage of "need" typically focus on one of four related aspects of adult education. The first concerns the goals and aims of adult education (need as manifestation of aim), the second concerns participation of learners in adult education activities (need as motivating factor), the third concerns the developmental changes experienced by adults (need as universal human experience), and the fourth concerns the process of program planning (need as means to justify and focus planning activities). It was the last of these that provided focus for this analysis and explains why other variants of the concept like basic need and survival need were not included even though they are often discussed in the literature.

A potential danger in this type of analysis is that nuances of meaning may be lost in the process of reducing twenty-nine different terms to six broad categories of uses. Indeed, there may be a more sophisticated means of reducing the confusion while maintaining the slight differences in meaning that some may find helpful. But discovering that means is left to others who may be provoked into action by this analysis.

Six Uses of Need in Adult Education

Motivational uses. This category of use includes felt need, motivational need, expressed need, sensed need, manifest need, and perceived need. Each of these terms is used to indicate that an individual or group recognizes that they are "owners" (Beatty, 1981) of a need and can articulate that need. To some degree these terms also imply that there is motivation to take action or to demand a response to the need, although there may be substantial variation in the implied level of motivation. Assessing needs of this type requires direct contact with the potential participants.

Prescriptive uses. This category of use includes prescribed or prescriptive need, ascribed need, normative need, comparative need, latent need, and unfelt need. Each of these terms is used to indicate that the needs are identified or articulated by someone other than the "owner" of the need and that the existence of the need may not be acknowledged by the "owner." Authors who discuss the concept in this way also emphasize the dangers of planning programs based on needs that are not acknowledged by those who would be expected to participate ("owners" of the need). Assessing needs of this type requires that the desirable condition or standard be specified by observers (Houle, 1972), authorities (Beatty, 1981), or experts (Bradshaw, 1972; Monette, 1977) who then compare that with the present or existing condition to determine if a discrepancy exists. In the case of a comparative need, the desired condition is determined by cataloguing the services or programs available to one group. Needs are identified when another group with similar characteristics is found not to be receiving equivalent services or programs (Bradshaw, 1972).

Structural uses. This category of use includes individual need, organizational need, community need, societal need, planetary need, micro need, and macro need. Each of these terms is used to emphasize structural relationships either between levels of social organization to which needs might relate (Boshier, 1986) or between a need expressed by an individual and a related need that may be discerned by the programmer from the expressed need (Boone, 1985). In both cases the intent is to communicate a structural relationship between one entity and another that has implications for how a needs assessment is done.

Priority uses. This category of use includes real need, hard need, derived need, and discrepancy need. Each of these terms is used to suggest a relative priority of the need based on the nature of information collected in the assessment. Real need and hard need suggest a superiority over other needs because of the type of information on which the need is based. Derived need and discrepancy need (Scissons, 1982) only exist when a threshold level of importance and/or motivation is revealed in the assessment at which point they become priority needs. It is interesting to note that those who use "real" and "hard" as adjectives never use the logical antonyms "unreal" or "soft" in their discussions.

Programmatic uses. This category of use includes educational need, learning need, expressive need, and instrumental need. Each of these terms suggests one or more characteristics of the expected response to the need. "An educational [learning] need differs from other needs only in that it is a need that can be satisfied by means of a learning experience" (Atwood & Ellis, 1971, p. 212). Expressive and instrumental needs suggest that the programmatic response will be designed to appeal to participants with different goal orientations (Londoner, 1978). Programs based on expressive needs will attract participants oriented toward immediate goal gratification while programs based on instrumental needs will attract participants oriented toward delayed goal gratification.

Surrogate uses. This category of use includes quasi-need and symptomatic need. Each of these terms is used to label a statement which may appear to be a "need" but which is considered something else by the author. Because it has been so difficult to develop an unambiguous definition of need, some authors have resorted to surrogate uses so that the utility of some non-needs can be acknowledged while maintaining the relative purity of the author's definition of need. Kaufman's (1987) use of quasi-need is a good illustration of this. He described a quasi-need as ". . . a gap in processes, methods, inputs, or resources such as training, organizational development, adult education, computer-assisted learning, budgets, or personnel" (p. 147). Quasi-needs are distinguished from "needs" which he defined as " . . . gaps between current results and desired ones" (p. 144). Atwood and Ellis (1971) explained symptomatic need in a similar fashion: "The idea of a 'symptomatic need' is useful although it is closely related to that of a 'felt need.' It is used to describe that which is considered real or genuine by a person or persons but which, in reality, is a manifestation of real need. In one sense, the manifestation might better be expressed as a symptom of a need" (p. 212).

Concluding Remarks

The concept of need remains a central construct in adult education theory and practice notwithstanding the bewildering variety of uses found in the literature. This analysis represents an attempt to clarify the uses of the term and thereby reduce the confusion and frustration that has prompted proposals to eliminate the concept from theory and practice. Continued proliferation of uses without synthesis will certainly increase confusion and frustration and lead, ultimately, to rejection of the concept. Those who continue to see value in the concept, notwithstanding its weaknesses, are invited to join the effort to burnish its tarnished image, not with the intention to conceal its flaws, but to reveal and correct them.

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EDUCATIONAL EQUIVALENTS: NEW POLITICS FOR LEARNING

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There are four major developments in industrial societies that are altering radically the way we have thought about, and acted, with respect to the education of adults. The latter phrase is chosen deliberately in place of "adult education" which, increasingly, is taking on a variety of implicit ideological meanings. Put simply, the four developments are: first, the rising age of students in programs of formal education at all levels. The most dramatic of these is the secondary school level, perhaps because it is the least expected, and the least well understood. Second, the rapid development of systems of instruction entirely outside of the system of formal education. In 1956, Harold Clark of Teachers College, Columbia University, estimated that such independent provisions represented expenditures of approximately 60 billion dollars, compared to 45 billion for the formal system. Recent evidence from the United States suggests that expenditures in the external system have outstripped expenditures on all formal systems.[1] Third, the rapid distribution of learning supports and materials throughout these societies, available to private groups and individuals. Computers, video tape recorders and other electronic devices are the most dramatic examples, with their emergent and troublesome capacities for linking public and private information stores, but we should also keep in mind the increasing appearance of various statutes providing for freedom of information. Finally, the growing movement - that seems a reasonably appropriate term - for the utilization of "experiential or prior learning", as a basis for assessing competence, and more particularly for the granting of admission to, and advanced standing in, the formal system of education.

With this last development two major strands in the fabric of adult education, at least since the turn of the century, are joined. Indeed, they are brought into confrontation with each other. Adult educators, and most forms of adult education in the industrial societies, have generally held themselves aloof from the mainstream of formal education, even when, as in the case of university extension, they were situated within formal providing agencies. They have done so because they have believed, with cause, that those agencies were not concerned at all with adult learners. They, the adult educators, have alternated between attitudes of scorn for the procedures and rituals of the formal system, and envy of the resources it increasingly commanded. There have, during the same period, always been some adults participating in that system, at all levels. For example the Toronto Board of Education has offered programs, mostly in the evening for adult students since the 1850's.

However history, comprised of a variety of developments -- not the least of which has been, since 1970, the decline of numbers in pools of conventional students -- has overtaken us. Our last hold out, perhaps, is our refusal to acknowledge that, if the UNESCO definition of adult education is to be accepted,[2] then all formal education participated in by individuals over the age of 18, must be included in adult education, or at least in the education of adults. For whatever reasons, the numbers of adults seeking admission to the formal system at all levels has steadily increased over the part twenty-five years, and show no signs of declining. It is this development that fuels the experiential learning movement; and that places it in the front ranks of critical problems of adult education, and for the management of learning.

"Experiential learning" is defined in a variety of ways. The problems arising from the use of this term, and of other familiar terms in unfamiliar ways, prompted the Quebec project to undertake a glossary of terms as one of its earliest endeavours.[3] Two definitions will suffice our purposes. The first is the broader and more intellectually satisfying, though not free of intellectual difficulties that are beyond the scope of this paper. "Experiential learning refers to learning in which the learner is directly in touch with the realities being studied. It is contrasted with learning in which the learner only reads about, hears about, talks about, or writes about, these realities, but never comes into contact with them as part of the learning process."[4] The second definition, and the more practical for our immediate purposes is, "experiential learning refers to knowledge and skills acquired through life and work experience and study which are not formally attested through any educational or professional certification". It can include instruction-based learning provided by any institution, which has not been examined in any of the public examination systems.[5] It is with assessment of this kind of learning, as a basis for admission to formal systems of education, which we are principally concerned.

Most systems of formal education are self-contained. That is to say that they reward achievement in terms of experience which they alone generate. All other learning, regardless of its source or quality, is either ignored or treated as only of auxiliary importance. This characteristic presented only minor problems so long as two conditions, predominant in the early period of the growth of these systems, prevailed. The conditions were, first that participation in the system was confined to the early phase of individual growth and development, and was generally uninterrupted until it was concluded. Second, that the credentials provided for public use by the system applied only to the initial entry of graduates or leavers to the world of work and employment, that is to adult life. There is no need with this audience to observe that neither of these conditions continues to apply. The phenomenon of the interrupted or recurrent participant is now so familiar that at least one official gatherer of educational statistics has introduced a new category of the "re-entrant".[6] Congruently the power of credentials now reaches into almost every life stage, affecting confidence, competence, advancement, and income. The decline of those conditions, in concert with, or as part of, the three developments cited at the beginning of this paper, has precipitated a powerful challenge to the self-containment of the formal system. Something has to give. It is no longer either practical or tolerable for re-entrants, almost by definition adults, to be obliged to ignore learning accomplished outside of the system, or for them, after years of absence and experience, to be required to re-enter at the position at which they left. To maintain such practices, surely impoverishes everyone. We are well experienced in public considerations of "bridging-the-gap" between the conclusion of formal education and the world of work and employment. Now we must be concerned with the other side of that particular coin.

There are and have always been a variety of ways in which experiential learning, as presented in the first definition, is utilized by formal teaching agencies. Cooperative education, apprenticeship, practicum(s), internships, etc., are only a few examples. However in all of these cases, the experiential unit has been planned, managed, and to a lesser degree evaluated by the teaching agency, only after the student has been formally admitted. In this case, leaning more heavily on the second definition, we are interested how learning, derived from experience totally out of the control and direction of the teaching agency, can be assessed for functional application within the formal system.

The present movement finds its principal origins in the United States, under the leadership of the Council for Adult and Experiential Learning. Emerging from the conclusions of the Report of the Commission on Non-Traditional Study, in 1973[7] the Council, initially called the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning was founded in 1974. Its work has been supported by the historic American commitment to the democratization of education, increasingly being extended to the education of adults, and by the existence of a large number of small, private post-secondary educational agencies, who are experiencing a sharp decline in the numbers of conventional students.[8] The American developments, therefore are to a much larger extent than is the case in Canada, institution-driven. A second major agency is the British Learning from Experience Trust. In this case the developments, associated largely with polytechnics, adult colleges, and a few universities, have been related to the recent introduction of a credit system long familiar in North America. In addition, there has been a growing awareness of the wastage of human talent implicit in a class dominated post-secondary educational system. Both France and Sweden have been experimenting in this area, with more theoretical work undertaken in Sweden than in any other country.[9] This has been primarily the result of the decision of the Swedish government in the late nineteen-seventies to open university admission to any individual of twenty-five years of age, and with four years of work experience. In this case too, the problem of the wastage of talent played a major role, a matter that cannot be ignored by Canadian authorities.

In Canada, with the exception of Quebec there is evidence at official levels of only modest interest, to say the least. The initial impetus in Quebec seems to have come from the report of the Jean Commission on Adult Education,[10] followed by the enthusiastic support of the present Minister of Education, Claude Ryan. In typical Quebec fashion, one of the early steps was to change the law governing the CGEPS to allow for admission of students based on the assessment of experiential learning. The resulting demand lead to the formation of a project group associated with the Federation of CGEPS which, in turn, has lead to a library of thoughtful reports and studies, and the development of growing expertise and experience in the techniques and procedures of assessment. At the moment Quebec is the major resource for Canada in this area. It is of particular importance to acknowledge that in September of 1987, the Council of Ministers of Education for Canada had on its agenda, for the first time, the matter of the utilization of experiential learning. The discussion had been requested by the province of Quebec and, in particular, by the Women's Bureau of that province.

The present study is being supported by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council, under a special program devoted to the relationship of work and education. The introduction of this program is itself presumably a result of pressure from some of the developments already noted. It is of note that the term "work" is used rather than "employment".

Research on this issue in Canada has been to date extremely limited, perhaps both an effect and a cause of the meager official already reported. A report by Stanley on "Credit for Prior or Experiential Learning" published by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Columbus, Ohio, purports to be devoted to post-secondary agencies in the United State and Canada, but contains no explicit information about Canadian provisions.[11] A 1984 paper by Baker, from the Educational Development Office of York University, observes:

> A review of journal articles in education...over the past several years produced no articles about awarding credit for prior learning in Canada...A review of undergraduate calendars from Canadian anglophone universities, however, produced surprising results. Twelve universities[12] have challenge examinations or special assessments available at least in some departments...only minimal information is provided about credit for prior learning options...There is no consistency in regulations and practices of prior learning credit among universities. There are variations in fees policies, whether a grade is given, if the prior learning grade is included in the grade point average, the number of challenge credits that can be used towards a degree, whether the challenge credits can be counted towards a residence requirement, etc."[13]

We could find no record of studies of such practices at the college or secondary school level.

In this study, questionnaires were sent to all universities, colleges, and to twelve ministries of education. Since the information we are after is subtle, the questionnaire ran to eleven pages. We are very much indebted to the individuals who went to the trouble of completing them. In some cases, questionnaires were copied and distributed within the agencies to different schools and faculties. By mid-March, of the 86 universities addressed (70 English-speaking, 16 French-speaking) 60 had replied; a response of approximately 69%. Two universities returned multiple questionnaires, and seven did not return questionnaires, but sent letters of explanation. Of the 142 Colleges addressed, 79 have replied; four sending multiple responses, and two letters of explanation, a response of approximately 55%. The latter figure may be slightly misleading since some colleges in Saskatchewan disappeared during the period of solicitation. Of the twelve ministries, ten had replied by that time.

The analysis presented here reflects only the most preliminary and primitive approach to the data gathered. Only 7 of the 29 questions are reported with no cross-tabulations. We apologize if this first glance distorts the final findings. The complete report should be ready by June 1988.

Two observations can be derived from the initial stages of the project. We have already referred to the limited interest in official circles in English-speaking Canada. We were greatly assisted by the AUCC, the ACCC, and the Council of Ministers in legitimizing the survey through their newsletters, but with the possible exception of the ACCC, the matter did not appear to be high on their agendas. However, at the level of particular agencies, and further, at varying levels within those agencies, the situation seems quite different. Individual responses were widespread and enthusiastic, as evidenced in part by letters accompanying the responses, additional independent letters, and phone calls. We developed two hunches. The first was that the assessment of prior learning was in fact a much more widespread practice in Canada than appeared to be the case. We were prepared to be surprised, as Baker has been; a commensurate surprise to that of Boyer who discovered that undergraduate admissions officers in the United States largely ignore the results of publicly provided tests.[14]

The second observation is that the phenomenon we are pursuing does not lend itself well to uniform, publishable practices, distributed extensively in space, but is a function of highly individual judgments limited in space, but trying to improve the formal educational system's ability to cope with time.

The first question asked if any students "who do not meet normal entrance requirements" are admitted. Of the 118 replies tabulated so far, 104 (88%) answered yes, 13 (11%) said no (the no responses, etc.). To the subsidiary section of this question about the existence of some prerequisites, such as a transitional year, etc., 56% replied yes for some or all students, 31% that no specific prerequisites are required. In reply to the second general question: "does the institution grant advanced standing for prior learning?"; 57% replied yes, and 41%, no. The numbers are higher than surface information would suggest, and even higher than we suspected. The difference between admission and advanced standing is, perhaps, also predictable. There is a considerable difference in confidence with respect to assessment techniques of academic competence between admitting an individual to cultural milieu of a teaching agency, and estimating with a degree of assurance exactly where the prior learning should locate him or her.

The next question (2) aimed at discovering specifics about the admission procedures. With respect to the following, replies were: "Do you waive prerequisites ?"; yes - 38%, no - 5%, no response - 46%; "waive course requirements"; yes - 26%, no - 23%, no response - 50%; "award course credit?"; yes - 49%, no - 9%, no response - 42%. Given the earlier figures, the proportion of no responses is somewhat puzzling, and requires further investigation.

Question 3 asked about the levels at which the special admission (a) and advanced standing (b) applied. Replies were as follows: undergraduate - (a) 44% (b) 23%; graduate - (a) 15% (b) 14% diploma - (a) 65% (b) 49%, and certificate - (a) 67% (b) 58%. There appears to be some consistency in the fact that the farther away from credit studies, the more flexibility in assessment. What may be of real importance however, is the degree to which skills for undertaking such assessments have been developed. Jumping to question 13, we asked about specific factors that are taken into account in assessing prior learning.

Table 1

Factors	Never	Sometimes	Always
Age	25%	37%	37%
Years Since Graduation	21%	48%	28%
Community Work	30%	59%	25%
Courses at employment	9%	59%	25%
Military Courses	16%	56%	21%
Domestic Experience	54%	30%	5%
Employment Experience	7%	63%	24%
Hobbies	46%	44%	24%
Languages	39%	46%	5%
Previous Academic Achievement	4%	28%	64%
Self-Directed Learning	21%	58%	15%
Travel	53%	38%	1%
Volunteer Work	29%	58%	5%

Room for speculation with respect to the meaning of these findings is unlimited and well beyond the scope of this paper. To be noticed are the surprisingly large totals of "Sometimes" added to "Always" for community work, domestic experience, self-directed learning, and volunteer work.

Finally we asked (19) where the influence in developing such procedures had mainly come from. With respect to internal sources, adding the sometimes and frequently responses together, major influences are: Presidents 64%, Faculty 43%, Deans 38%, Students 19% to the Alumni, 7%. External influences were: Armed Services 41%, Community 21%, Social Agencies 18%, Trade Unions 17%, Business 16% down to Women's Groups 4% and Immigrant groups 4%.

The results are preliminary, and highly selected in terms of the questions reported. There is much that is interesting, indeed surprising, and much to puzzle over. It is immediately apparent that the practice of the utilization of the assessment of prior learning is very much more widespread in Canadian education than suspected. It is equally clear that concern over the significance of such practices is not very high on many agendas. It is also likely that the awareness of the availability of such practices is not widespread, particularly among those who would benefit most from their application. Presumably, as Baker argues in her paper, the basic incentive at large in the United States, the presence of large number of competitive, private and public educational agencies, is almost totally lacking in Canada, so far. But the existence of inequity in access to educational resources, and the commensurate waste of talent, the factors that appear to be driving the British and Quebec interests and activities in this area, can hardly be denied. We educators of adults know better than anyone the approximately thirty years of evidence for the non-participation of adults in formal education who somehow or other got off to bad starts in the formal system, or who have not participated at all. That should be sufficient reason to pursue these matters publicly and aggressively.

There are however some interesting issues arising, that may be further illuminated by more careful consideration and analysis of the data, or they may not.

First, is greater access to the formal system a or the effective solution to the waste of talent? Is the pursuit of such an objective really the pursuit of justice, equity, and most important liberation, or is it largely pandering to the imperial inclinations of formal education and its legions.

Second, what glimpses of the nature of knowledge or perhaps of kinds of knowledges (perish the phrase) does this kind of exploration present. Is all knowledge interchangeable? Should it be? The Swedish research has indicated that the use of prior learning is more widespread in some areas - the soft science and humanities than in the natural sciences. What are the proper relationships between these kinds of knowledge, and how is what you know absolutely conditioned by the way you learned it?

Third, it is notable that the major participants on both sides of this equation, the givers and receivers, are women, in all of the countries for which evidence is available. Can it be that these procedures are largely defined by the fact that it is women who have experienced them? Are we in fact witnessing one of the major structural and procedural changes in the society that is being brought about by the increasing numbers of women penetrating the formal educational system, or at least demanding admission? Surely we would expect differences to appear first where learning is publicly involved.

Fourth, if we pursue and enlarge the application of these procedures, without at the same time increasing the educational and learning resources available in the society, are we simply creating serious generational conflicts? The research in Sweden, arising as it does from experience with the widening of access to university education, is already grappling with this issue. We must admit, after all these years, that it is an ironic and poignant issue for adult educators.

Fifth, and finally, what are the other risks? The development of these practices in the United States is leading to serious reconsideration of existing admission practices - a process long overdue. But what is the precise nature of the skills and procedures involved in the new practices which move away from long-established and public procedures, who should be exercising them, and what protection have we as a society against their abuse. Thomas Hobbes observed that nothing so easily seduces a man, and perhaps he meant only men, as being told that he is a swift learner. What protections, both individual and organizational, are needed to ensure that we do not, over a period of time, yield so totally to the temptations involved, that the entire system collapses? In our opinion the risks are worth it, but they are still there.

Notes

[1] Eurich, N. *Corporate Classrooms*, Princeton: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1985

[2] UNESCO, *Recommendations on the Development of Adult Education, Occasional paper 34*, Ottawa: Canadian Commission for UNESCO, 1980, p. 3-4.

[3] Landry, F., *Vocabulaire de la Reconnaissance des Acquis (Deuxieme Version), Etudes et Reflections, Doc. 9*, Montreal: Federation des CGEPS, 1987.

[4] Keaton, M. (Ed.), *Learning by Experience: What, Why, and How*, Washington: Jossey-Bass, 1978, p. 2.

[5] Evans, N., *Assessing Experiential Learning: A Review of Process and Practice*, London, Longmans Group, 1987, p. 1.

[6] Government of Ontario, *Education Statistics, Ontario, 1986*, Toronto: Ministry of Education, 1988, p. 21-22.

[7] Keaton & Associates, *Experiential Learning: Rationale, Characteristics, and Assessment*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976, p. xvi-xvii.

[8] Stadtman, V., *Academic Adaptations: Higher Education Prepares for the 1980's and 1990's*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1980, p. 120. *"Between 1969-70 and 1977-78, the number of universities and colleges applying such principles of admission rose from 14% to 41%."*

[9] Abrahamsson, K., et al, *The Value of Work Experience in Higher Education: A Study of Work Experience as a Substitute for Formal Academic Requirements*, Stockholm: School of Education, Department of Educational Research, 1980.

Also, Abrahamsson, K., *The Life Experience in a Community of Knowledge*, Stockholm: National Board of Universities and Colleges, Research and Development Division, 1981.

[10] Government of Quebec, *Commission d'Etudes Sur La Formation des Adultes*, Quebec: Ministry of Communications, 1981.

[11] Stanley, E., *Credit for Prior or Experiential Learning*, Columbus: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1980.

[12] The twelve universities in the Baker study are: Alberta, Brock, Calgary, Carleton, Lethbridge, Manitoba, McGill, Regina, Simon Fraser, Victoria, Windsor, and Winnipeg.

[13] Baker, J., *Credit for Prior Learning from a Canadian Perspective*, Toronto: York University, Educational Development Office, 1984, p. 13.

[14] Boyer, E., *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America*, New York: Harper & Row, 1987, p. 34.

ADULT EDUCATION IN THE NETHERLANDS: A MULTIPLE RETREAT FROM INTEGRATION

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In The Netherlands the specific combination of several sciences and different branches of philosophy which takes adult education as its field of study, is called 'andragologie'. In contrast, however, to the way such concepts as 'andragogy', 'Andragogik' or 'andragogya' are used in for example the U.S.A. (Knowles, 1970: 38), West Germany (Poeggeler, 1974: 16) and some Eastern European countries (Savicevic in: Charters, 1981: 45), 'andragologie' stands not only for the study of adult education, but also for the study of social work and community organization.

The development of Dutch andragology has to be seen in the context of the rise of the Dutch welfare state and its aspiration to promote social, educational and cultural well-being in the Netherlands after the Second World War. As a consequence, unfortunately, the problematic situation in which andragology finds itself today is closely connected with the economic crisis that threatens the Dutch welfare state.

The search for a science

Although the Dutch magazine Maatschappelijk Werk (Social Work), published since 1899, had coined at an early date the name 'social engineer' for senior officials active in relief of the poor and in popular education, it took a long time for these fields to be adopted as legitimate subjects for research and for a specially established university curriculum. Nevertheless, The Netherlands played a pioneering role as far as the professional training for social, educational and community work is concerned. The School voor Maatschappelijk Werk (School for Social Work) was founded in Amsterdam in 1899, and was thus the first school in the world of this kind.

Contrary to the present use of the term, in The Netherlands the notion of 'social work' at first not only meant public assistance, but also popular education. The School for Social Work was ever since its foundation, engaged in the entire gamut of activities that are now called 'andragogic'.

Thanks to the efforts of the School for Social Work, the occupation of 'social worker' in the broad sense of the term grew into a profession. A profession is pre-eminently characterized by the fact that the knowledge required is complex and can only be mastered after thorough training; in addition the delivery of the service must be guided by a code of ethics. A professional, then, must possess a high degree of technical and moral know-how. Fundamental to the process of professionalization is the creation of a body of knowledge fit to serve as material for research and study at an institute for higher education. In The Netherlands social, educational and community work sought a science of its own on the road towards becoming a profession. This was found in 'social pedagogy', a then upward coming discipline in Germany.

The first attempt to deliberate systematically over social pedagogy was undertaken by the German philosopher and educationalist Natorp round the turn of this century. He denounced the individualistic character of the education of his times and claimed that a human being can only come of age in a community. Strong communal sense was needed to fight not only liberal egoism, but also marxist class consciuousness. Natorp did not regard social pedagogy as a component of pedagogy, but simply as education. In his view, the education of children and adults had to contribute to making an end to the fatal economic and social split which had occurred in the German nation.

The collectivist trend in German social pedagogy - as education by the state for the state - was to reach its lowest point during the Nazi regime. After the First World War, however, there arose another 'social pedagogic movement' of an entirely different character, aimed specificaly at youth. It was not the neglected youth that were a menace to the community, but the other way around: youth had to be protected against society. Seen from this angle, social pedagogy was a distinct component of education, a field with a task of its own. An "early form of youth welfare work became the first program of social pedagogy" (Dibbits, 1978: 22).

In The Netherlands, social pedagogy was barely subjected to theoretical scrutiny before the Second World War. As a university discipline it got its first chance to develop after the liberation from the German occupation, with the advent of the modern welfare state. Based upon the model provided by Beveridge, the architect of the English welfare state, the Dutch government in exile in London instituted in 1943 a commission for the "benefit of the social security of all members of the population" (Van Gent, 1982: 46). Shortly afterwards, the basis for its scientific support was laid down in the form of a new Faculty of the Political and Social Sciences at the University of Amsterdam. This Faculty was not only meant for the training of the future leadership in public service and private enterprise, but also for the training of the new managers of public and private institutions in the fields of social, educational and community work. In 1950 Ten Have was appointed professor at the chair of social pedagogy.

At first Dutch social pedagogy combined the two trends that had divided socio-pedagogical thinking during the interbellum in Germany. Specific tasks in the field of welfare work for youth and adults were formulated, but at the same time the general ideal of a true community was propagated. Gradually, however, a theoretical and practical distinction was made between activities directed at children and those directed at adults.

In a way, the discussion started when Ten Have published an article in 1960 (reprinted in: Ten Have, 1961) in the Dutch periodical Volksopvoeding (Popular Education) on social pedagogy. In this article he pointed out that where adults were concerned, "the work was unthinkingly given the term social ped-agogy", because the Greek word pais (genitive: paidos) means child. Some time afterwards he suggested the term 'andragogy' for work on behalf of adults (viz. Gr. aner, andros = adult). He also introduced the term 'andragology' to denote the science dealing with the study and research of such work (viz. Gr. logos = science). Later, however, historical research made clear that this terminology was not new at all. As early as in 1833, Kapp first coined the German term 'Andragogik' to give a name to those activities meant to carry on the process begun with pedagogy; this was two years before Diesterweg invented the term 'Social-Paedagogik' (Van Gent, 1982: 43)!

Ten Have's efforts in the field of conceptual clarity and theoretical analysis were followed with great interest by those who were active in social, educational and community work with adults and who - in their striving for professional recognition - wanted a theoretical and practical territory of their own. As a result of their combined forces a new Department of Andragology was founded in 1966 at the University of Amsterdam, relatively independent of the already existing Department of Pedagogy. In a Royal Decree of November 1970, which authorized the admission of andragology to the roster of the other universities in The Netherlands, the connection was explicitly made between andragology as a science and practical fields such as social work, adult education and community organization.

Two levels of integration

Seen in this light, andragology had to deal with a problem of practical integration. Social work, adult education and community organization did not form a homogenous entity of coherent activities. They were rather a conglomerate of various kinds of work, each with its own history and distinct pursuit, while even within these separate kinds of work numerous differentiations had developed over time. Dutch adult education, for example, has from its beginning been heavily influenced by very diverse German and Anglo-Saxon ideologies and practices. But many people involved in the different kinds of social, educational and community work with adults, were eager to develop new integrational activities, now that the old bonds with 'genuine' socio-pedagogigal work had been cut. The advantages of a combined aproach seemed to outweigh the disadvantages in many ways. The clientele of social work, adult education and community organization, for example, often belongs to the same social stratum. Its needs could be more effectively met by a well planned mixture of strategies.

As andragology takes under scrutiny a wide range of problems, it may be compared with sciences like environmental or administrative studies, which also have rather complex configurations of problems as their targets. These relatively new fields of study can be regarded as multidisciplinary sciences. For solving their problems, each of them makes use of knowledge derived from 'basic' sciences, which calls for a second form of integration, but this time on the theoretical level.

In the field of the social sciences, we can distinguish between three sorts of sciences. First, disciplines like psychology and sociology deal with the study of behaviour and society in a general sense, or with specific aspects of these phenomena. Next, a discipline like social psychology deals with the area linking psychology and sociology. Finally, a science like andragology integrates the knowledge of such 'basic' disciplines as psychology and sociology to address the multifaceted problems that it takes under its aegis. To solve these problems, andragology not only needs the insights derived from psychology or sociology, but also those stemming from such diverse disciplines as anthropology, history, economics and philosophy (in particular the philosophy of science, ethics and social philosophy).

Since the problems connected with the types of activities denoted by the term 'andragogy' had not been studied before by the then existing disciplines, or only with regard to some specific aspects, there was an opening for andragology. If through a combination of already tested forms of acquiring knowledge the total yields more than a collection of loose parts, such an operation makes sense and is worthwhile. This can be ultimately be accomplished by switching from a multidisciplinary constellation of knowledge - where the basic sciences still function rather loosely from one other - to an interdisciplinary science with a more integrated body of knowledge. Medical science can be regarded as a good example of an interdisciplinary accomplishment, but, at this moment at least, andragology functions mostly at the multidisciplinary level.

Andragology as a multidisciplinary science of different kinds of social, educational and community work was therefore faced with at least this twofold problem of integration. But for some years the context of the Dutch welfare state provided a favorable climate for integration in both the practical and the theoretical sphere. In a booming economy there was enough financial room for new experiments, even when the pay-offs might not be immediate. For of course the process of professionalization cannot not only derive from the sheer ambition of practical workers and intellectuals, seeking for many reasons a territory of their own and improvement of their standing. It should always be seen within the specific historical, cultural, economical and political context of a particular society. The academic recognition of andragology in The Netherlands was the outcome of professional striving, socio-cultural acceptance and governmental support.

A retreat from integration

As a result of - among other facors - the present economic crisis, the building of the Dutch welfare state shows many fissures today. To an increasing degree, professionals working in fields like social work and adult education go their separate ways, each seeking shelter under the umbrella of the so-called hard institutions that are less threatened by financial cuts. Social work is looking for help from the traditional safe world of medicine. Adult education is moving in the direction of regular primary, secondary and higher education, or the training for a specific job, where the quest for diploma's and certificates is predominant, leaving little room for educational activities that do not produce directly visible results. Many fear that in this manner even adult education itself will become an internally divided house again.

At the same time, Departments of Andragology all over The Netherlands have to face important budgetary reductions. Consequently, psychologists and sociologists among others tend to shrink away from interdisciplinary efforts, which may be intellectually stimulating, but are also endangering their professional identity. According to the rule of 'last hired, first fired' disciplines like psychology and sociology with their established professional associations, refereed journals and international contacts, offer a much safer home then a new discipline like andragology which cannot provide these traditional characteristics of professional accomplishment and status.

Although the advantages of a combined approach with regard to such practical activities as social work, adult education and community organization still are considerable, it would seem to be a more realistic policy for Dutch andragology to confine itself to the study of adult education only, thus coming more to resemble developments in other countries, where adult education is treated as a separate field of study and research (Van Gent, 1987: 120). It would be quite naive, however, to think that this move would provide an easy solution to all the problems of present-day andragology. The question of the disintegration of adult education itself into 'hard' and 'soft' sectors, and certainly also the major theoretical task of becoming a interdisciplinary science are still lying ahead of us. The privilege of academic freedom gives those working in the domain of science, however, still room for experiment and discovery, but this room is denied to those professionals whose practical work is cicumscribed by economic necessity. One can only hope that in the foreseeable future andragology will be able to profit from this academic freedom to become an interdisciplinary science in the true sense of the word, capable of helping different types of adult educators to solve at least some of their riddles.

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DISTANCE EDUCATION INNOVATION, DECISION-MAKING AND COST CONTROL

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Background

In this paper the author presents a case study in which inexpensive computing spreadsheet technology was applied in an attempt to control the costs of a large-scale distance education innovation at the University of Saskatchewan. The project, involving both an introductory English and an introductory History course, was initiated to provide greater access to quality university instruction by all Saskatchewan residents on an economically feasible basis. It was to make university access more equitable to communities regardless of their size without exceeding the cost of providing conventional face-to-face instruction.

For the University of Saskatchewan the project **was innovative** in that it permitted the university to explore for the first time: 1) the use of live *television via satellite* along with print and telephone instructor-student interaction for the delivery of university credit courses; 2) the extensive use of local support personnel in the form of *proctors and tutors* employed by the university; 3) the *full-time secondment of experienced faculty* with outstanding reputations for teaching effectiveness; 4) the use of a new provincial *telecommunications consortium* to provide local space and telecommunications facilities; and perhaps most significantly, 5) the delivery of the courses on a province-wide basis *in lieu of relatively expensive and inaccessible face-to-face courses* in introductory English and History.

In addition, the project was considered to be **exceedingly complex** relative to the university's past experience with distance education. Elements of complexity which significantly increased the risk associated with the project included: 1) the large *enrollments* required to make the project cost effective[1]; 2) the large number of *personnel* involved in the development and delivery of the two courses[2]; 3) a new telecommunications network involving seconded staff with experience in the provision of local facilities for *only non-credit learning events of short duration;* 4) the direct expenditures for development of approximately $75,000 with indirect staff costs approaching $100,000 and *anticipated annual expenditures of approximately $100,000 with total off-setting revenue projected for four to five years;* 5) a time span of *only eight months* from when the project was first conceived to when the courses commenced; and, 6) serious difficulties convincing the community colleges in two of the largest centers *that the rationale was both sound and appropriate* and that their total participation was essential. With respect to the latter, Wagner and Whale (1988)[3] in a study of key project participants in such a community, referred to the innovation rationale as incorporating a "Robin Hood principle." By replacing the conventional face-to-face classes with the distance education innovation, the objecting communities experienced a loss of revenue with the resultant effect that some smaller communities which had not previously had access to those same basic courses, expressed satisfaction at having achieved a new access to what they considered to be "high quality university instruction."

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[1] Four weeks after their commencement, there were 348 students enrolled in the two courses.

[2] Key full- and part-time university staff assigned to the project included: instructors (2), designers (2), television producers (2), university administration at the operations level (3), and university administration at the planning and policy level (2). In addition, the telecommunications consortium was involved at the operations level with an executive director (1) and community college coordinators (12).

[3] Wagner, R.M.K. & Whale, W.B. (1988). Community, distance education and the "Robin Hood principle." In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Ninth Annual Adult Education Research Conference (pending publication).* Calgary, Alberta, Canada: University of Calgary.

Decision-Making and Cost Control

Typically, spreadsheets consist of a grid with horizontal and vertical identifying labels so that each cell can be given a unique identity. Into each cell a number or a word or a formula can be entered. When a formula is entered, it directs an interaction among specified cells to produce a product of that interaction, that product is then entered into the cell containing the original formula. The product can take a variety of forms such as that of a sum, a percentage, or the product of a division function. However, once the appropriate labels, numbers, and formulae are entered, the planner need only *up-date and alter his or her cost assumptions and all of the calculations are automatically up-dated in keeping with the new cost assumptions*. This permits the planner to prepare a spreadsheet which *assumes* values for a complex array of variables based on the best information available at the time. If the results are not considered to be cost-effective, the planner can then test alternative design features and cost assumptions to determine the kinds of design alterations or learning conditions which can keep costs in line with the initial specifications.

Due to complex cost, design, and time constraints in the project reported here, rapid processing of information was vital to the decision-making in the design and development phase. Six decision points occurred during the project development phase around which the use of spreadsheet technology proved significant. The decision points in chronological sequence, were as follows: 1) the initial "go/no-go" decision; 2) the decision to implement the project on a province-wide basis in *lieu* of the conventional face-to-face format; 3) the decision to "package" the instruction for future years; 4) the decision to limit pre-production costs; 5) a decision to set financial constraints for public promotion; and, 6) the definition of the learning sites. Budget projections through spreadsheet analyses were conducted around each of the six decision points and were used to assist the planners in their incorporation of up-to-date information and in their selection of the best strategy for proceeding.

A go/no-go decision (December 10th to January 30th). The go/no-go decision period involved: discussions with and the procurement of prospective teaching faculty; orientation for prospective project management faculty with the ultimate re-assignment of instructional designers from other assignments to the courses to be developed; the assignment of production staff for the portions to be televised; and, discussions with selected community colleges, with special attention directed toward those communities with the largest past enrollments in the conventional face-to-face format. The go/no-go decision was premised on a design model incorporating 1.5 hours of live television per week delivered through satellite; instructor-student telephone interaction; some print materials; the use of the new telecommunications network for local facilities; and, the use of local support personnel for students in the form of tutors or proctors. The model also implied the centralization of all delivery costs and tuition revenue as in other distance education courses rather than the traditional cost sharing formula normally in effect between the community colleges and the university for conventional face-to-face courses.

By centralizing the delivery costs with the university, the entire financial risk passed to the university along with total financial control. However, it was recognized that financial risk could be off-set through prudent and frequent budget projections to ensure that the development costs were manageable *and that the on-going operational costs could meet the criteria established for* *financial success.*[4] Initial projections were based on limited cost information;[5] the anticipated enrollment of 150 to 200 students with corresponding tuitions; and, the negotiation of indirect costs due largely to the re-assignment of professional staff to course development teams. The latter were then identified as either *one-time development* costs or as *on-going operational* costs. The student-related costs were broken out of the on-going operational costs for special consideration. The one-time costs were amortized over the four to five year period considered to be the maximum life of a course without major revision. The on-going operational costs included the annual saving expected from a reduced number of subsidized face-to-face courses.

During the initial go/no-go period but prior to the actual decision to proceed, frequent consultations occurred between senior administration at the policy level and the course development teams to reach mutually acceptable instructional models--models that could permit high quality instruction within given project cost constraints. The designers with their project teams became the "custodians of instructional quality" while the senior administration with spreadsheet modeling technology, assumed the role of "financial custodians." *This process of design-budget interaction continued throughout the entire development phase, binding the design and budget decision-making into a singular process at the core of the development phase.*

Province-wide (January 15 to February 15). As described above, shortly after the project's initiation, it became evident that the larger community colleges had difficulty accepting the project rationale which would move financial control from the college to the university. Alternatives proposed by those colleges included one model which would have some students taking the courses by distance education and others taking the same courses through the university subsidized face-to-face format and a second model which would have the innovation restricted to lower enrollment courses rather than the high enrollment introductory English and History courses. New financial models were constructed and budgets projected based on the proposed alternatives. The new projections included guesses as to how enrollments might be geographically clustered and the implications for local tutor/proctor support costs associated with each "cluster" of students. It was concluded that *to accomplish the essential "elements of the innovation" and to meet both the financial and quality criteria for proceeding, it would be necessary both to develop only high demand courses and to remove competitive alternatives.* Consequently, the decisions were made: a) to proceed with the introductory English and History courses as originally planned; b) to remove the University of Saskatchewan sponsored face-to-face options; and, c) to consult with the University of Regina in an effort to gain cooperation in the removal of the subsidized and "competitive" options on a province-wide basis.

"Packaging" the instruction (February 1st to March 30th). New cost information related to the "live instruction" component of the courses was higher than initially anticipated[6] and in excess of what could be tolerated. To deal with this problem, additional models were constructed incorporating various strategies to move as much of the cost from the "on-going operational" category into the "one-time" category. Particular attention was paid to the inflated cost items related to "live television instruction"--costs over which the university would have little or no control in future years for the two courses. The result was a revised production model in which *between one-half and two-thirds of the programs would be "packaged" before or during the in-studio presentations with post-production packaging costs for such items as editing, kept to a minimum*. It was planned that in the second, third, fourth and fifth years, video libraries would be established through the community colleges or the telecommunications consortium and that the live in-studio presentation would be used to provide either supplementary material or student-instructor interaction and would be restricted to from thirty to forty-five minutes per week instead of the ninety minutes per week scheduled for the first year. In spite of the added costs to package and set up video libraries, cost analyses indicated that sufficient savings could be realized over the five-year life of the courses to make the new course model cost-effective.

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[4] The university criterion for financial success was "to make university access equitable to communities regardless of their size *without exceeding the cost of providing conventional face-to-face instruction* ."

[5] A Telsat satellite contract had not yet been negotiated for the delivery period. In addition no decisions had been made related to: "competitive" face-to-face classes in selected communities; whether or not instructional television "packaging" would occur or the associated costs; how the telephone interaction would occur or the associated costs; how the tutor/proctor support would be administered, where they would be employed, and the associated tutor/proctor costs; how the telecommunications consortium would manage the local facilities or the associated costs; and, the extent of pre-production activities or the associated costs. However, most of the latter were anticipated in the beginning and extensive efforts were made to include ""guestimates"" of the associated costs in the projections.

[6] The rising "live instruction" costs included: the in-studio live production of the instructors' lectures; the satellite transmission costs; and the associated telecommunication consortium costs.

Pre-production costs (April 30th to August 1st). Although a considerable portion of the pre-production costs were negotiated in advance as indirect costs through the re-assignment of existing staff, as the pre-production activities got underway the costs began to quickly escalate at a rate beyond what had been anticipated. Of particular concern was the cost for the acquisition of copyright permissions. It was decided to maintain only a small contingency fund for annual miscellaneous "production" costs and to allocate a larger sum for pre-production costs as a *one-time investment which could be amortized over the five-year life of the project*. Projecting the new costs into the model as one-time costs rather than re-occurring costs demonstrated that the instructional model still remained cost-effective.

Public promotion (March 1st to August 15th). Initially, a sum had been allocated as an annual cost for the production of an information brochure for province-wide distribution. However, for a number of reasons[7], it was decided that additional media advertising[8] would be required. Because of the experimental nature of the innovation and the unique uncertainty surrounding the off-campus credit courses, additional costs for public promotion *were considered extra-ordinary to the innovation and absorbed elsewhere by the organization.*

Defining the learning sites. (August 15th to September 15th). The telecommunications consortium provided a network of fourteen possible receiving locations. Only nine of the fourteen possible sites were ultimately identified as learning locations with tutors or proctors employed by the university. It was possible for students to participate in most of the other locations if they chose to do so without the assistance of local support personnel. Rather a distant tutor was assigned to their area to provide support upon request through tele-tutoring. In addition, students without local support personnel had access to the instructor by way of a toll-free telephone line as did all of the other students. To determine how the local learning sites would be geographically defined, it was important to monitor the location of registrants immediately after they were accepted into the courses. When pre-specified enrollment minimums were reached for a particular location, it was declared a learning site and efforts were initiated to employ local tutors or proctors. Where minimum enrollments were not reached, students were notified of the available learning site most accessible to them. Spreadsheet/data-base technology enabled the planners to track student enrollments as their registrations were accepted and to continuously sort and monitor those enrollments by geographic location. The lateness of registrations *due to the uncertainty surrounding the off-campus university program made up-to-date information and rapid decision-making critical as new students waited for information about where their "center" was located and the identity of their local tutor or proctor*. While students were waiting for information about learning sites, so were the prospective tutors and the various community colleges[9] responsible for providing local facility support to the project.

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[7] Reasons included: objections by the largest community colleges to the shift in financial control from the college to the university which in turn, led to poor college cooperation in terms of student counselling and information dissemination to the communities; smaller community colleges operated with only a skeleton staff during the important late spring and summer months; a delay in the implementation of new technology in the Registrar's office which in turn, delayed significantly the distribution of the annual off-campus calendar; and, a major initiative by the provincial government to re-organize the community colleges which, in turn created considerable college uncertainty and public confusion at a time when students should have been making their registration plans.

[8] Additional advertising included: a "no-cost" but effective press release; a series of paid broadcast television announcements; and, newspaper advertisements.

Conclusions and Implications

Under conditions when the rapid processing of relatively complex information is important, spreadsheet technology can be used. Detailed costs, revenues, and amortizations represent "complex information" while the uncertainty of conditions surrounding development programs requires continuous and therefore, rapid information processing. Such was the case for the innovation reported here.

It has been concluded by the author that the application of spreadsheet technology reported here to test course delivery design variations against cost criteria, was successful. In addition to meeting the cost criteria, evidence gathered to date[10,11] suggests that the model ultimately arrived at, approaches the established criteria for success related to "quality of instruction" and "accessibility."

Of particular interest was the interaction between the administration and the project design teams. The senior administrators, as the "financial custodians" monitoring the cost information, were "enveloped" into the project teams as full participating members--a role which may prove helpful in the future to the successful adoption of the innovation at the university organizational level.

However, a number of questions emerge from the case related to the control of information. For example: Where should the responsibility and control rest for the type of information processing reported here? As the methods for processing information become routine, should the control of such information processing remain centralized and with senior administration or should it be decentralized and rest with the project personnel? Would centralized control prove to be a disincentive for professional faculty and staff? Would decentralized control impede the acceptance and adoption of an innovation by senior administration? Other questions emerge related to the communication and information assimilation necessary for innovation acceptance and adoption at the university and the community levels. With complex information handled quickly and with an abbreviated innovation development period, would there be time to prepare adequately for its implementation? For example: What are the indirect costs associated with ensuring that key actors on both levels understand and accept the innovation when it is ready for implementation? With future rapid information processing and a collapsed development period, would there be ample time for the university and the receiving communities to properly assimilate vital innovation information in preparation for its implementation? Given a collapsed development period, what information dissemination measures can to be taken to ensure that key participants in the implementation phase are adequately prepared?

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[9] As member institutions of the provincial telecommunications consortium.

[10] Wong, A.J. (1988) *An experiment in distance education: a formative evaluation of English 110.6 and History 112.6* Unpublished manuscript, Division of Extension and Community Relations, University of Saskatchewan.

[11] Wagner, R.M.K. and Whale, W.B. (1988) [The English 110.6 and History 112.6 innovation: a study of key community and university participants--their attitudes, their roles, and the dissemination/use of information related to the innovation.] Unpublished raw data.

TOWARD A TYPOLOGY OF PARTICIPANTS IN EMPLOYER FUNDED EDUCATION

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Introduction

Since the late 1950's adult educators have become very interested in the motives, reasons, or "motivational orientations" that appear to explain why people participate in adult education. Those who sponsor it (governments, employers and community organizations) often have particular objectives in mind. But the learners themselves participate for a variety of reasons, only some of which fit the stated or underlying objectives of the sponsoring agency.

This divergence between the motivational orientations of sponsors and learners became the centrepiece of arguments about whether people undertaking employer sponsored education should be forced to undertake educational activities directly relevant to their job. Some evidence (O.E.C.D., 1976) suggests it is the provision of educational opportunity that makes a difference. Although employers want their employees to undertake "relevant" studies, it appears that post-educational employee productivity or performance also improves if they pursue non job-related studies.

These issues provide a backdrop to the situation at the British Columbia Telephone Company (B.C. Tel), where employees wishing to undertake educational activities on their own time can apply for financial assistance to do so. B.C. Tel's Financial Assistance Program reimburses an employee for the cost of tuition, books and relevant materials upon the successful completion of a pre-approved course or program of courses.

The primary purpose of this study was to examine whether participating employees are motivated by "job" or "non-job" reasons. A secondary purpose was to examine the extent to which types of employees (identified by socio-demographic characteristics) differed with respect to the extent to which they were motivated by "job" and "non job" related reasons. Recognizing the holistic nature of human beings, it was expected that participants would enroll in "job-related" courses, but not necessarily for "job-related" reasons.

Motivational orientations appear to be moderately related to social, psychological, and other variables. Socio-structural variables appear to influence reasons for participation over a continuum that ranges from "life-chance" to "life-space" motivations (Boshier, 1977). At the lower end of the social order, deficiency is the operand that leads to the satisfaction of survival and safety needs (Maslow, 1970). Advancing through the continuum, growth needs are met by educational activities ranging from status-seeking to self-actualization. Demographic variables partially determine the strength of the motivational influences felt by the individual (Boshier & Collins, 1983).

Methodology

Data was collected via a questionnaire developed by the researcher that incorporated questions related to socio-demographic characteristics of participants, Boshier's (1982) "Education Participation Scale" to determine motivational orientations, and Helmreich and Spence's (1978) "Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire" to assess components of achievement orientation. The questionnaire was sent via inter-departmental mail to 250 randomly selected employees from the population described above who had indicated they had taken courses in 1985.

Boshier's, (1982) instrument contains 40 items rated on a four point Likert-like scale ranging from 1 to 4, where a rating of one indicates "no influence" and four indicates "much influence". Scale scores are derived by summing over items that comprise each factor. The EPS has test-retest item reliabilities significant at the .001 level ranging from .44 to 1.00 with an average of .81 (Boshier, 1971). Typically, this instrument has been used in adult education settings in an educational institution or community environment. The current research was done in an industrial setting. Thus, the EPS was scored as follows. Thirty B.C. Tel. supervisors in a variety of disciplines that reflected the employment function categories used in this study were asked to rate each of the 40 questions of the Education Participation Scale, assuming a positive response, as "definitely job-related, definitely not job-related or can't decide". Ratings of 25 and above in any of the categories were considered sufficient justification for inclusion in that category. This resulted in 18 questions being categorized as job-related, 19 not job-related, and 3 undetermined.

The Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire (WOFO) was developed to assess achievement orientation and attitudes toward family and career (Helmreich & Spence, 1978). The inventory asks respondents to rate 32 items that describe values related to family, work, and career on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 to 4. The 23 items related to achievement orientation yield scores on four subscales; Work, Mastery, Competitiveness, and Personal Unconcern. Reliabilities, as expressed in Alpha coefficients, are satisfactory for scales of this length, ranging from lows of .50 in both sexes on Personal Unconcern to .76 and .72 for Competitiveness in males and females respectively.

This study involved the analysis of the socio-demographic characteristics of employees who participated for job-related as compared to non job-related reasons. To determine this, a typology of participant types was constructed. Based on the mean scores of all participants, those with high job-related participation and high non job-related participation (ie. above the overall means for both job and non job-related) were labeled TYPE I (HH), with high job-related and low non job-related participation TYPE II (HL), with low job-related and low non job-related participation TYPE III (LL), and with low job-related and high non job-related participation TYPE IV (HL).

Thereafter, sex, age, domestic status, child status, education level, length of service, employment function (union or management), union function, and management function were used to classify respondents into the four motivational types. Discriminant function analysis is designed to predict group membership (in this study, TYPE I, TYPE II, TYPE III, and TYPE IV as described above). The data consisted of "discriminating" (independent) variables which measured the characteristics on which the groups were expected to differ. Based on these variables, the discriminant function analysis would determine if the groups differed, and weight and linearly combine the discriminating variables to force groups to be as statistically distinct as possible. Thus, variables were simultaneously analyzed to determine which configuration or combination best distinguished between high job/high non job, high job/low non job, low job/low non job, and low job/high non job-related motivational orientations.

Results

The mean job and non job-related Education Participation Scale (EPS) scores for people in each of the socio-demographic groups was calculated. The mean score for job-related motivational orientation was 2.11, calculated by summing over eighteen items, while the mean for non job-related motivational orientations was 1.54 over nineteen items. Job-related motivational orientations were significantly more "influential" than non job-related motivational orientations ($r = .50$, $p < .001$). Pearson product-moment correlations indicated that older employees were less influenced by job-related motivation than younger employees ($r = -.25$, $p < .01$), that the longer the period of employment, the less job-related motivation was an influence to participate ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$), and that union employees were more influenced by job-related reasons to participate than management employees ($t = 3.27$, $p < .01$). There were no significant differences in the EPS scores of people in different gender, marital status, number of children, educational level, union function, and management function groups.

Thus far, the focus of the data analysis has been on bivariate relationships; between EPS job-related scores, WOFO scores, and each of the socio-demographic (independent) variables or between WOFO scores and each of the dependent variables. However, at the outset, it was noted that this research concerned both "job" and "non job" motivational orientations. Thus, the next section reports results of a discriminant function analysis which attempted to classify respondents into motivational "types" which used interactions between socio-demographic variables to explain differences between them.

In the introduction to this paper, it was noted that participants enroll for a variety of job and non job-related reasons. A "job" motivational orientation is not necessarily the converse of a "non job" motivational orientation. There are people who participate for both high job and non job reasons, others for high job and low non job reasons, and still others who participate for low job and high non job reasons. A fourth category consists of participants with low scores in both job and non job-related motivational orientations. Given the difference in means (2.11 for job-related, 1.54 for non job-related), an examination of job and non job-related motivation by socio-demographic characteristics was considered essential. Pearson product moment correlations were calculated for sex, age, domestic status (living alone or living with someone), child status (with or without children), education level, length of service, employment function (management or union), union function, and management function.

Results indicated that while only age, length of service, and employment function were significantly associated with job-related motivation, this was not the case in non job-related. Older employees and those in management were less influenced by both job and non job-related motivational orientations. Respondents with children and managers in staff positions were more influenced by non job-related motivational orientations than participants who were childless or in line management positions. Respondents with shorter periods of employment with B.C. Tel were more likely to participate because of job-related influences.

When job-related and non job-related scores of the 159 respondents were displayed on a scattergram where job-related scores are on the vertical axis and non job-related scores on the horizontal, it was evident that most respondents were clustered in the lower left quadrant. When the means of job-related (2.11) and non job-related (1.54) were added to the scattergram, it became clear that participants fell mainly into either the high job/high non job, or low job/low non job-related quadrants. While fewer in number, those in the high job/low non job and low job/high non job-related categories were clearly identifiable in the scattergram.

Four types of participants were now identified; those with high job-related and high non job-related motivational orientations (TYPE I), with high job-related and low non job-related motivational orientations (TYPE II), with low job-related and low non job-related motivational orientations (TYPE III), and with low job-related and high non job-related motivational orientations (TYPE IV). Thus, an attempt was made to examine the extent to which socio-demographic variables, when working together (in conjoint relationships) determine the extent to which they can discriminate between the four types of B.C. Tel employees studied in this research. Note that the dependent variable in this part of the study is participant "type". Each participant has been typed according to the extent to which they were motivated by both job and non job-related reasons.

The relationship between each of the independent variables (socio-demographics) and "TYPE" was determined prior to running the discriminant function analysis. This helped identify x variables to be included or excluded from the discriminant analysis. Only age and management function were significantly related to type when considered separately. These were selected as variables for entry in the discriminant equation. However, due to the well-known "third variable" problem (Neale & Liebert, 1973), variables with no known relationship to TYPE were also readied for entry.

During the first discriminant function analysis thirteen independent variables were entered into the equation. They included nine socio-demographic variables and four WOFO scores for each respondent. It was no surprise to find that WOFO scores contributed to discriminant functions that correctly classified 48.3% of the 120 respondents. Although psychometrically satisfying, this result was not of great theoretical interest because of the high intercorrelation between WOFO and EPS scores. Moreover, the use of thirteen variables violates the principle of parsimony (Marx, 1963). Therefore in the second analysis WOFO scores were deleted. In addition, management and union function scores were removed since they were neither dichotomous nor interval variables. Thus, seven variables were included in the second analysis. The discriminant function analysis used only three of these and resulted in the successful classification of 45.0% of the respondents into the four "TYPE"s.

At this point a decision was needed. It was apparent that three or even two independent variable solutions were almost as "successful" at classifying as were seven or 13 variable solutions. Since age, length of service, and employment status were known to be significantly related to job-related motivational orientations, these were readied for entry as a three variables analysis. Two survived and resulted in the successful classification of 45.8% of the cases. Although this analysis misclassified approximately three percent more cases than the 13 variable one, it proved to be more effective and parsimonious than the analysis using seven variables where three survived. The focus in the remainder of this paper will thus be on the "two variable" discriminant function analysis because, despite the loss of three percent of the cases, the need for parsimony takes precedence over explanatory power.

The two variables shown here accounted for 43% of the total variance in "TYPE" (canonical correlation of .43). Age variance was distributed across the two functions. The first function (largely age) accounted for 29.9% of the total variance, the second (age and employment function) accounted for 12.7% of the total variance. Discriminant function coefficients indicated that age (.72, -.72) was the most powerful variable when working together with the other two variables used. Employment function (.56, .85) was the next strongest. The discriminant function was able to correctly classify 45.8% of the cases into their "correct" TYPE (Table 1). When reading Table 1 pay particular attention to the misclassified TYPE II and TYPE IV cases (who largely ended up in TYPE I and III).

Table 1

Percentage of Participant Types Correctly Classified by Discriminant Function Analysis

TYPE	Number of Cases	Predicted Group Membership 1	2	3	4
1 High job-related High non job-related	39	19 48.7%	0 0.0%	20 51.3%	0 0.0%
2 High job-related Low non job-related	18	8 44.4%	0 0.0%	10 55.6%	0 0.0%
3 Low job-related Low non job-related	47	11 23.4%	0 0.0%	36 76.6%	0 0.0%
4 Low job-related High non job-related	16	8 50.0%	0 0.0%	8 50.0%	0 0.0%

Percent of "Grouped" Cases Correctly Classified: 45.83%

The meaning of Table 1 is best understood by consulting Table 2. Based on the combined or interactive effects of the above variables, it was possible to construct a profile of participants in each type.

TYPE I and TYPE II participants are similar. Their average ages are similar and so is their length of time employed by B.C. Tel. They differ primarily in employment function; they are practically mirror images of each other in this respect; that is, 44% of TYPE I and 56% of TYPE II are managers. TYPE III and TYPE IV participants also had a similar age and length of service. Unlike TYPEs I and II, TYPE IV was split evenly between union and management, while TYPE III participants had by far the largest number of management employees (70%). Indeed, in this respect, TYPE IV participants resemble TYPE I and II respondents more closely. Since in the discriminant function analysis age and employment function were the most powerful variables in the equation, the similarities between TYPE I and II, TYPE III and IV in age combined with the similarity between TYPE IV, II, and I in employment function would tend to inhibit the ability of the equation to distinguish between TYPE II and TYPE IV respondents. In other words, TYPE II and TYPE IV respondents are close relatives of those in TYPE I and III.

Table 2

Socio-demographic Characteristics of Four Types of Respondents

TYPE II (n = 18) (high job/low non job) Primary Average age - 33.8 years Management 56% Union 44% Secondary Length of service - 9.9 years	TYPE I (n = 39) (high job/high non job) Primary Average age - 33.9 years Management 44% Union 56% Secondary Length of service - 11.3 years
TYPE III (n = 47) (low job/low non job) Primary Average age - 37.7 years Management 70% Union 30% Secondary Secondary Length of service - 13.8 years	TYPE IV (n = 16) (low job/high non job) Primary Average age - 37.3 years Management 50% Union 50% Length of service - 13.3 years

Summary

This study provided an opportunity to explore aspects of theory concerning motivational orientations. Two main findings were derived. The first concerns the fact job related motivation generally exceeded non job motivation. However, although the participants motivational orientations were reasonably congruent with B.C. Tel's objectives for the Financial Assistance Plan, many participants were as motivated by non job as by job reasons. This seems to imply that job and non job motivational orientations are inter-related and not mutually exclusive. The typology presented showed that 39 respondents with high scores in "job" also scored highly in "non job". Similarly, 47 respondents with low scores in "job" had low scores in "non job".

The second finding stems from the discriminant function analysis. Although several of the socio-demographic variables were significantly associated with job or non job scores, only "age" and "employment function" and, to a lesser extent, "length of service" (at B.C. Tel) entered the equation that successfully classified 45.8% of the respondents. This evokes several questions related to unexplained variance and why these two variables, and not others, were the most significant predictors of TYPE of participant. The successful classification of 45.8% of respondents into four types of participants using only two variables, and the failure of the 13 variable solution to improve the classification process significantly, suggests that other untested variables may have allowed a better prediction of type. In particular, the enigma of TYPE III participants (older managers) who participated for low job/low non job-related reasons, needs to be explained.

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A STUDY OF STUDENTS IN PART-TIME DEGREE STUDIES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN: IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM PLANNING

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In the early 1960s, a combination of demographic, social, economic and political factors contributed to an unprecedented growth of the post-secondary education system in Canada. Between 1960 and 1985 full-time post-secondary enrollment more than quadrupled. This was due mainly to the size of the 18 to 24 age group and the rising participation rate. Under the euphoria of enrollment increases with attendant government support, part-time degree programs at many universities tended to be relegated to the status of second-class fringe programs. In the late 1970s, the number of full-time students from the 18 to 24 age group steadily decreased, while the "baby boomers" entered the age range normally associated with part-time study combined with full-time employment. This shift in university enrollment pattern combined with government restraint on public spending for higher education prompted many universities to take a second look at part-time programs and their participants.

The University of Saskatchewan has had a long tradition of offering courses through a variety of programs to meet the needs of people who are unable to attend university classes on a full-time basis. In 1907, our university provided off-campus learning opportunities such as the "Better Farming" demonstration trains and the "Homemaker" short courses. Over the last 80 years, degree studies for part-time students have evolved from correspondence courses, summer classes and off-campus classes taught by "travelling instructors" to courses which are delivered by a combination of print and electronic media such as audiotapes and satellite television. The various programs are administered and/or developed by the Division of Extension and Community Relations at the university. In recent years, the university has been faced with the challenge of increasing demand for access to university programs and decreasing financial support for the maintenance and development of programs.

Given the changes in the context of higher education in the past decade and the increasing numbers of students participating in part-time studies, a study was initiated in the spring of 1987 to gather information that would assist the Extension Division in the long-term planning of part-time degree studies programs. The study had five objectives: 1/ To collect demographic data which would supplement the information available from the Registrar's Office; 2/ To determine what factors motivate students to enrol in university study, to enrol in specific courses, and to withdraw from their courses; 3/ To collect information about the students' study patterns, specifically the modes of study they had participated in in the past three years and the modes they intend to participate in for the next three years; 4/ To obtain an assessment from students of the university's services for part-time students; and 5/ To solicit suggestions from students about the things that the university could do to help them in their studies.

A questionnaire was designed to survey students enrolled in seven part-time degree studies categories. Based on a population of over 11,000 student enrollments, a random sample of 4,107 students was selected to receive a questionnaire. Of these students, 62.5% or 2,565 students completed and returned their questionnaires within 6 weeks of the initial mailing. The responses to 14 questions were coded and analyzed using the SPSS program. Student comments and suggestions were recorded and summarized. Because of space limitation, only selected findings from this study will be presented and discussed in terms of the questions they raised for our Division's program planning. The background characteristics of the respondents will be highlighted and compared to the findings of a recent national survey. The students' perceptions of the University of Saskatchewan's services for part-time students will not be described in detail as they relate to only one institution's activities. However, the comments of the students will be be discussed in terms of support services for university part-time students.

Among the students who responded to our survey, there were twice as many female students as male students (67.3% vs 32,7%). This distribution is consistent with the Canadian government's *1983-84 National Post-Secondary Student Survey* (1) which reported a distribution of 62% female and 38% male among part-time undergraduate students. Less than half (44.6%) of the respondents were married. This percentage is lower than the 55% reported by the national survey and may be accounted for by the inclusion of "conventional" full-time undergraduates who were surveyed as part of the intersession and summer session participants. Only one-fifth of the respondents were in the traditional undergraduate age range of 22 and under. One-third of the of the students were between 23 to 30 years of age; 29.2% were between 31 to 40 years of age; 18% were age 41 and older. The proportion of students who are over 30 years of age (47.2%) is lower than the national figure of 58%. One-quarter of the students had been first admitted into the University of Saskatchewan when they were over 30 years of age; 37.0% had been between the ages of 23 to 30. Two-thirds of the students were employed outside the home, 46.5% on a full-time basis and 22.5% on a part-time basis.

The students were asked to indicate how important seven motivating factors were in their decision to enroll in university study. Similarly, they were asked to rate the importance of ten factors which may have influenced their decision to enroll in their particular courses. In both cases, students indicated the degree of importance on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (not important at all) to 5 (very important). Among the seven motivating variables, "to broaden my general knowledge" was given the highest mean rating. It was closely followed by "to obtain a university degree" and to "update my professional skills/knowledge" . The motivation "to comply with job requirements" received a fairly high rating. Three factors were deemed to be of little or no importance --- "to socialize with other university students; to satisfy family needs or pressures; to escape from boredom" (Table 1).

Table 1
IMPORTANCE OF 7 FACTORS IN MOTIVATING PERSON TO ENROLL IN UNIVERSITY STUDY

	MEAN
TO OBTAIN A UNIVERSITY DEGREE	= 3.927
TO BROADEN MY GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	= 3.999
TO ESCAPE FROM BOREDOM	= 1.699
TO COMPLY WITH JOB REQUIREMENTS	= 2.928
TO SATISFY FAMILY NEEDS OR PRESSURES	= 1.704
TO SOCIALIZE WITH OTHER UNIVERSITY STUDENTS	= 1.759
TO UPDATE MY PROFESSIONAL SKILLS/KNOWLEDGE	= 3.725

The ratings show some significant differences when correlated with sex and age. While male and female students alike gave the highest ratings to the motivators "to obtain a university degree" and "to broaden my general knowledge," the former ranks number one among female students but second among male students. This pattern differs somewhat from the national survey which reported a slightly higher percentage of female than male students who chose to register for academic reasons (i.e. general interest in furthering education). "To update professional skills/knowledge" remains an important motivator for both sexes. A significant difference was also found between the ratings of different age groups. Younger students tended to rate "to obtain a university degree" the highest while older students age 30 and beyond tended to identify "to broaden general knowledge" as the most important motivator. Within the 40 to 49 age group, "to update professional skills/knowledge" ties with "to broaden general knowledge" as the most important reason for enrolling in university study.

Among the 10 factors which influenced students in enrolling in particular courses, "course content" was rated the highest by the students. This lends some support to the national survey's finding that part-time undergraduates more often identified academic reasons than job-related reasons for choosing a field of study. Also highly rated were the desire to "accelerate progress toward a degree" and the "convenient location of the course" (Table 2). Next came the factor that the course is pre-requisite for a major. Factors which were perceived to be of lesser importance included the reputation of the course, the university and the instructor. Comments from the respondents indicated that the last factor is a negative one --- students tend to avoid taking classes from instructors who have a "bad" reputation as a teacher.

Table 2
FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCED ENROLLMENT IN PARTICULAR COURSES

		MEAN
REPUTATION OF U. OF S.	=	2.451
REPUTATION OF THE COURSE	=	2.558
REPUTATION OF INSTRUCTOR	=	2.058
COURSE CONTENT	=	3.526
CONVENIENT LOCATION OF THE COURSE	=	3.028
RECOMMENDATION OF A FRIEND/RELATIVE	=	1.875
NEED TO RAISE AVERAGE GRADE	=	1.642
LACK OF EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES AT TIME	=	1.685
COURSE A PRE-REQUISITE FOR MAJOR	=	2.860
ACCELERATE PROGRESS TOWARD DEGREE	=	3.365

Among the respondents, just over half had withdrawn from a course during their university study. These students were asked to rate the importance of 12 factors which may have influenced their decision to withdraw from a course (Table 3). The most highly rated factor was "not enough time to study." Disappointment with the instructor was the second most important factor. Of lesser importance were the heavy load of assignments, the difficulty of the course, the boring content, and dissatisfaction with grades. Comments from the students indicate that many students who have jobs and family responsibilities tend to under estimate the time and effort required to complete one or more university courses. Mature students who enroll in a course because of personal interest in the content are easily turned off when the instructor is insensitive about the students' opinions or experiences.

Table 3
REASONS FOR WITHDRAWING FROM A COURSE

	MEAN
NOT ENOUGH TIME TO STUDY	= 3.311
COURSE TOO DIFFICULT	= 2.458
COURSE TOO BORING	= 2.206
ASSIGNMENTS TOO HEAVY	= 2.653
DISSATISFACTION WITH GRADES	= 2.431
DISAPPOINTMENT WITH INSTRUCTORS	= 3.002
HEALTH PROBLEMS	= 1.668
BABYSITTING PROBLEMS	= 1.225
TRAVELLING DIFFICULTIES	= 1.276
FINANCIAL CONSTRAINTS	= 1.599
LACK OF SELF CONFIDENCE	= 1.778
PERSONAL REASONS	= 2.280

A number of demographic characteristics were cross-tabulated with the respondents' past and future modes of study. While there is a higher proportion of female students in all categories of part-time degree studies, the greatest difference is found in off-campus study and independent study, where 80.0% and 75.7% of the students are female. Single students formed the majority of the participants in the categories of part-time on-campus day study, intersession and summer session study. Married students were in the majority among the categories of independent study, part-time off-campus study, and part-time on-campus evening study.

Proportionally more married students than single students indicated they would like to participate in full-time study, intersession and summer session study in the next three years. Comments from the students indicate that this preference may not be one of personal choice, but is a reaction to the lack of senior level or professional service courses offered via the off-campus and independent study programs. For example, many nurses in Saskatchewan are under pressure to achieve a nursing degree by the end of the next decade. These health care professionals and many teachers who aspire to obtain graduate degrees cannot get the courses they want because the small population and vast geographical area of Saskatchewan sometimes make it economically unfeasible to offer courses where they are needed.

In anticipation of using alternative modes of delivering independent study and off-campus courses, the students in this survey were asked to indicate whether they had access to a variety of electronic media. Two-thirds of the respondents indicated they had access to cable television, 62.8% had access to a videocassette recorder, 41.5% had access to a personal computer, but less than 10% had access to a satellite dish. Comments from the students revealed that many students are eager to experience courses which utilize a multi-media approach; some students offered to purchase a VCR or a personal computer immediately if courses were delivered via these modes.

The results of our survey have some practical implications for our program planning for part-time students. Given the equally strong motivators of "to broaden general knowledge" and "to obtain a university degree" among the participants, it appears that we should provide an appropriate mix of courses to meet both these needs. The great importance that the female respondents place on completing a degree coupled with the fact that they are the biggest group of participants in independent studies suggest that we should attempt to provide more senior level courses in this mode. The students' acceptance of and sometimes eager anticipation of courses delivered via a multi-media approach provides some support for initiative in this direction. This may be even more feasible in light of the relatively high proportion of participants who have access to cable television, VCRs and personal computers. However, further study needs to be conducted to find out how the different delivery modes compare with each other in terms of the cost and the quality of learning for the participants.

The survey also indicated that the goal "to update professional skills/knowledge" was a strong motivation among the respondents. The servicing of this need has traditionally been the mandate of the non-credit unit of our Division. However, comments from the students indicate that many would like to receive credit for their professional activities. Given the limited financial and human resources available for development of new programs, this suggests that the credit and non-credit units within our Division should collaborate in developing and marketing our courses. For example, credit courses can be designed in a modular format such that selective modules can be "re-packaged" as non-credit professional development workshops. On the other hand, participants in non-credit workshops can serve as a sounding board when course proposals are being developed.

Finally, the respondents' descriptions of their trials and tribulations as part-time students point to the need of improving the university's support services for part-time students. Ratings of and comments about university services for part-time students indicate a high level of dissatisfaction with regard to academic counselling, registration procedures, library services for off-campus students, and information dissemination about future courses. In addition, many students pointed out the need for faculty members to improve their communication skills. While adult students tend to respect an instructor's knowledge and research expertise, they are often dissatisfied with how the instructor communicates that knowledge and relates the knowledge to their experiences. Given the national trend towards an increasing number of older university students from beyond the 18 to 24 age group, university faculty and administrators need to be convinced to give greater consideration to the learners' backgrounds, life situations, needs and abilities in planning their programs.

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MEASURING COMPLETION RATES IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

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Introduction

'Distance education' is a term commonly used to describe situations where, because of the physical separation of learners and teacher, teaching is mainly done through a variety of print and electronic (audio, visual, digital) media. The most well known form of distance education involves courses by correspondence, other forms involve radio, television, audio tape, video tape, computer - with or without tutorial support - or a variety of combinations of any of the above.

As distance education plays an increasing and vital role in providing education to so many, its outcome and effectiveness become important issues. As research topics, these two issues have been translated into student achievement and completion rates. The bulk of the work on achievement was done in the 1950's and 1960's and centred around comparisons between the grades obtained by students studying by correspondence and those studying by conventional methods. With regard to completion rates, serious research efforts were started as long as thirty years ago and continued to the present day. However, a number of problems persisted.

This study was designed to contribute to theory about, and the operation of, distance education. There were two purposes:

1. To create and examine the conceptual and psychometric properties of four components that comprise programme 'outcome' usually sought by distance educators.

2. To examine the extent to which four 'student' socio-demographic variables and four 'programme' variables were related to programme 'outcome'.

These purposes were achieved by reviewing literature on 'outcome' and by empirical operations performed on a large data set recording the 1984 summer session correspondence operation at the Department of Extramural Studies, The Chinese University of Hong Kong.

Four hypotheses were tested.

Hypothesis 1: Students' completion rate is significantly associated with turnaround (time for the teaching institution to mark and return assignments) one quarter way into the course; those experiencing shorter turnaround will submit more assignments than those experiencing longer turnaround.

Hypothesis 2: After passing the halfway point of the course, turnaround does not correlate with students' completion rate significantly.

Hypothesis 3: One quarter way into the course, 'high' deviation (slow in submitting assignments) students have a lower completion rate than 'low' deviation (quick in submitting assignments) students.

Hypothesis 4: Student variables (sex, age, education and occupation) and programme variables (duration, fees, nature of course and language of instruction) are not significantly associated with the completion rate, deviation and grades of students.

Review

There have been a number of research efforts in the last thirty years related to completion rate in distance education. Among these, a few were concerned with the review of research. Childs (1971), reporting in one of the reviews, observed that evidence of carefully done research was hard to find. Mathieson (1971) agreed with Childs' observations and summarised the on-going research topics as three main questions. They were (1) what was the typical completion rate; (2) what factors influence completion rate; and (3) what can be done to improve it?

Coldeway (1982) suggested the problems with published papers on distance education were the prevalent use of ill-defined terms and variables in the discussion of phenomena or in the description of particular practice thus making replication impossible. He saw a number of factors limiting the role of research in this area. Educational researchers were rarely present during the design of distance learning systems. There was no clear paradigm for research. There were too few publication outlets. Researchers were testing variables that were really classes of variables.

In this study, 34 previous studies which had completion rate as its main topic of investigation were reviewed. Some were concerned with what reasons students gave for dropping out. The rest mainly fell within the categories as described by Mathieson. Usually, they involved the examination of the relationships between a number of independent variables and completion rate. The variables could be divided into a number of categories.

Student variables: age, sex, previous education level attained, occupation, prior experience with distance education.

Programme variables: type, duration, level of courses taken, the number of courses taken at the same time, workload of the courses, the quality of instruction and of the learning material.

Method variables: types of study method, study time, whether there was a study schedule.

Personal attributes: intelligence, aptitude, perseverance, motivation (including purpose of enrolment, goal of student, need to complete by a certain date), preference to independent study.

Performance variables: time to submit first assignment, quality of tutor comments, rate of submission, hours of study, change in drop-out rate over time, response to pre-course tasks, satisfaction with registration service, number of assignments completed and turnaround.

There were two main drawbacks with respect to this body of research. The first related to definitions and measures. There was no consensus on the definition of completion, thus making comparisons between studies difficult. Also, the two most popular formulations of completion rate (1) percentage of enrolment completing the course and (2) percentage of starters (those who have submitted one or more assignments) completing the course both yielded a dichotomous variable which was not helpful in examining what happened during the progress of the course. The second drawback concerned the interpretation of results. Although the results from these studies were volumous, there has been little attempt to explain or to construct conceptual frameworks or theories in a systematic manner. So each piece of result could only be taken on its own, at face value and did not contribute to theory building or systematic understanding.

The first task therefore is to construct measures derived from records which are commonly kept by distance education institutions and are suitable for research and evaluation purposes.

Variables

The derived variables used in this study were all computed from existing record of the 1984 Summer Session of the Correspondence programme of Department of Extramural Studies, Chinese University of Hong Kong.

The independent variables used in the study were age, sex, education, occupation, fees, language of instruction, duration and nature of course.

Four dependent variables were derived from student records. Standardised grades was defined as means of grades for assignments submitted. Completion rate was the percentage of assignments submitted over the required number of assignments to be submitted. Deviation was defined as the average number of days that separated the dates of submission from the due dates of assignments. Turnaround was the average time in days between the dates when student submitted assignments and the dates when the corrected assignments were returned.

The derived variables thus defined had a number of advantages over previous measures. First, each was an independent measure of a different phenomenon and there was no overlap. Second, there was a precise value for each variable at each stage of the course and for every student. Each was a continuous variable which might prove to be advantageous when analysed in relation to other variables and lent itself to parametric analysis.

These four derived variables in combination and in the absence of tutorial support and required examinations and tests as it was in this case, provided a comprehensive profile of student performance at each stage of the course. Turnaround attested to the performance of the offering institution. The four variables, considered together, could be considered to quantify programme outcome.

Method

At the Department, a microcomputer and customised student record software were installed to keep records electronically. A further function of the software was the export of data in the form of a text file which could be read on screen and by other common business and statistical software. Two types of data were exported in this manner. An enrolment file where each line represented a student enrolment record and an assignment file were similarly created. There were 1731 records in the enrolment file while there were 773 records in the assignment file. Only 773 students submitted one or more assignments.

Using relational data base software, information on the two files was checked and prepared for data analysis. The variables contained in the files submitted for analysis were sex, age, education, occupation, duration of course, language of instruction, fees, nature of course, average number of assignments submitted at each stage (in units) of the course, average completion rate at each stage, average deviation at each stage, average turnaround at each stage and average grades at each stage.

Analysis

The focus of this study was to examine relationships between independent and dependent variables and between various components which comprised the dependent variables.

To examine the relationship between continuous or ordinal independent variables and the four continuous dependent variables, Pearson product-moment correlations were computed. Between the nominal independent variables and continuous dependent variables, one-way analysis of variance was used. Between the dichotomous independent variables and dependent variables, the T-test were applied.

Analyses were also performed to examine the relationships between the independent and dependent variables at quarter stages into the course. Finally, analysis on how the dependent variables varied with time and with each other were computed.

Results

Students were on average submitting 36 percent of the required assignments (X=.36, S.D.=.28). The average age of students fell within the 20-24 and 25-29 age groups (X=2.36, S.D.=1.39). Their average education level, was between the secondary and post-secondary education groups (X=2.29, S.D.=.59). The average duration of course taken was just over eleven units or very near the very popular 10 to 12-unit courses (X=11.56, S.D.=3.46). The average fees paid by students were about HK$125 (X=124.98, S.D. 23.54). On average, students were almost three weeks behind in submitting assignments for every unit (X=19.95, S.D.=29.33). The average time taken by the Department to mark and return assignments was almost fourteen weeks (X=97.06, S.D.=86.34). Students achieved an average grade of 73 percent of the full mark (X=.73, S.D.=.09).

The results from various analyses were too lengthy to report in full here so only the more interesting parts are highlighted. In Table 1, we can see that age correlated significantly with completion rate (r=.08, p <.01); older students were submitting more assignments than younger ones. Deviation correlated significantly with age (r=.05, p <.01); older students took slightly longer to submit assignments than younger ones. Deviation correlated significantly with duration (r=-.12, p <.001); students on shorter courses took longer to submit assignments than students on longer courses. Grades correlated significantly with education (r=.15, p <.001); students with a higher educational background obtained higher grades than those with lower. It is interesting to note that educational background did not correlate significantly with completion rate or deviation.

Table 1
Summary of analysis, n=773

	Completion	Deviation	Turnaround	Grades
Pearson's Correlation				
Age	.08*	.05*	-.07	.10*
Education	.04	-.08	.10	.15**
Duration	-.11**	-.12**	-.15**	.28**
Fee	-.12**	-.01	.28**	.01
One-way				
Occupation	N.S.	N.S.	F=2.57 p <.05	F=6.26 p <.01
Nature	F=3.83 p <.01	F=2.74 p <.05	F=37.27 p <.01	F=22.38 p <.01
T-Test				
Language	N.S.	N.S.	t=-25.05 p < .01	N.S.
Sex	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.

* p <.01, ** p <.001

Different occupation groups did not have significantly different completion rates nor deviation and none of the groups completed significantly more assignments nor took significantly longer to submit them than any other group. The groups, however, scored significantly different grades, (F=6.26, p <.01). When grouped by nature of course, participants had significantly different completion rates (F=3.83, p <.01), deviations (F=2.74, p <.05), and grades (F=22.38, p <.01).

Sex had no significant correlation with student performance. Age was associated with completion rate, deviation and grades. Education had no significant correlation with completion rate and deviation but correlated significantly with grades. Duration had significant association with completion rate, deviation and grades. Fee has significant association with completion rate but not with deviation and grades. Occupation was significantly associated with grades but not completion rate or deviation. Nature of course had significant influence on all three. Language of instruction had no significant association with any of the four derived variables. As a few of the student and programme variables were significantly associated with the derived variables, Hypothesis 4 was rejected.

As far as the inter-relationships between the dependent variables were concerned, completion rate correlated significantly with deviation (r=-.09, p <.01); those completing more assignments took shorter time to submit them than those in completing fewer assignments. Completion rate correlated significantly with turnaround (r=-.14, p <.001); those who experienced shorter turnaround completed more assignments than those who experienced longer turnaround. There was no significant correlation between grades and completion, between deviation and turnaround, and between deviation and grades. There was significant correlation between turnaround and grades (r=-.16, p <.001); those who experienced shorter turnaround had better grades than those experienced long turnaround.

Table 2 shows the mean completion, deviation, grades and turnaround scores for each quarter. Only completion varied significantly from quarter to quarter. The mean deviation score was always approximately 20 days, irrespective of which quarter. Grades were always very close to .73 and turnaround only varied between 97 to 100 days. Thus, with the exception of completion, students behaved much the same with respect to deviation and grades through the courses and so did the institution (with respect to turnaround).

Table 2
Means scores of completion, deviation, grade and turnaround after each quarter of courses.

		1st	2nd	3rd	4th
completion	Mean	.71	.52	.42	.36
	S.D.	.26	.30	.30	.28
deviation	Mean	20.64	20.40	20.17	20.11
	S.D.	27.77	28.34	28.47	29.22
grades	Mean	.73	.73	.73	.73
	S.D.	.10	.09	.09	.09
turnaround	Mean	97.61	98.40	97.84	97.14
	S.D.	94.03	90.70	88.51	86.61

The four derived variables quickly approximated their terminal values very early on in the course. This was especially true for deviation, turnaround and grades. In other words, the pattern of deviation, turnaround and grades did not vary a great deal throughout the duration of the course. For completion rate, the approach to the terminal value was not as dramatic but still substantial. After the first quarter, the correlation was already r=.67, p <.001, quickly turned r=.90, p <.001, after the second quarter. The pattern for these four variables were firmly set after the second quarter when each correlation attained r=.90 p <.001 or better.

The correlation between completion and turnaround at the end of the course was negative and significant (r=-.14, p <.001). After the first quarter of the course, the correlation increased but it was still negative and significant (r=-.21, p <.001). Students who had experienced shorter turnaround submitted more assignments. Hypothesis 1 was confirmed.

After the second quarter, correlation between completion and turnaround decreased slightly, but still negative and significant (r=-.20, p <.001). After the third quarter, the correlation decreased further, but still negative and significant (r=-.16, p <.001). After passing the halfway point, changes in turnaround still had a significant influence on completion. Hypothesis 2 was rejected.

The correlation between completion and deviation at the end of the course was negative and significant (r=-.09, p <.01). After the first quarter, correlation was higher (r=-.12, p <.001), students who were deviating more from due dates in the submission of assignments handed in fewer assignments than those who were deviating less. Hypothesis 3 was confirmed.

Hypotheses 1 to 3 were time dependent, i.e. they stated a relationship at some point in the course. However, even if the time element was taken out, Hypotheses 1 and 3 were still not to be rejected and Hypothesis 2 were still to be rejected.

Conclusion

What this investigation has shown is that with each element of 'outcome' defined (completion, deviation, grades and turnaround), we have an instrument to study the progress of students at various stages of the distance education course. The traditional constraints of freezed frame study has been overcome.

The amount of results from various analyses were substantial. It was possible to fill in most of the gaps still left outstanding by previous research. Many previous findings have been confirmed. This is surprising considering the vast differences in contexts and operation. There were also no diametrically opposite results. The present study was prompted by evidence from previous findings that student performance at the initial stage of the course was a very telling indicator of things to come. This was explained by Wong and Wong (1979) as students making a commitment to a programme of study after the start of the course and were aware of the amount of work and the difficulties involved. It was reasonable to assume that this would happened after the first quarter of the course. Once the commitment has been made, variations in turnaround could be seen as positive and negative reinforcement it.

On the other hand, deviation or how quickly the assignments were submitted could be seen as conducive to the forming of behaviour patterns. Once the pattern has been established, more of the same would happen. This led the researcher to speculate that completion rate would be affected by turnaround at the first quarter of the course but not so at more than halfway. This was not supported by the results. However, the self-correlations for the four variables at different stages of the course convincingly demonstrated that once a pattern was set, in this case, the response to turnaround, more of the same would happen later. Those who had experienced extended turnaround at the beginning of the course took longer to submit their assignments. In the second half of the course, turnaround remained extended and students' response remained the same, they took just as long to submit their assignments.

The results reinforced the contention that students performance at the initial stage of the course was a good predictor of subsequent performance. The problem then is how to get students to quickly establish a desirable pattern of study at the beginning of the programme.

It is important to note that similar data are commonly found in most distance education programmes. This type of retrospective study can be easily replicated. The psychometric properties of the derived variables had been amply demonstrated and should be employed by other researchers, a host of analyses could be performed and new insights gained. Meaningful comparative studies across programmes, institutions and cultures could be and should be made.

Another possible avenue of research into completion is prediction, the preçision of the measures makes precision of prediction possible.

The difficult task is in the further interpretation of these results. There is no "off the shelf" theory that one can turn to. However, the investigation has provided a foundation from which further inquiries can be made.

The measures used in this study could also be everyday measures of a distance education programmes. They provide for close monitoring of student performance and programme outcome at any stage of the programme. If changes were introduced - whether changes in course design, course material, course arrangement, administrative policy or other factors - the measures could track what changes in outcome would occur. Such knowledge could form the basis of developing a strategy for intervention to improve completion.

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